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PREFACE

THIS book is intended for the general reader, especially for him who is unfamiliar with the general development of the public library in this country; for the librarian, who will see in it little that is new, but possibly a grouping of facts and a mode of treatment that may be suggestive, or at least interesting; for the young library assistant, to whom it may be of help in assimilating the unfamiliar facts and methods that are daily thrust upon her; and for the student in library school or training class, who will find in it not an exhaustive treatise on library economy, but rather a bird's-eye view of the subject. Facts, methods, and figures have not been avoided, but there has been no attempt to make them complete; rather has it been sought to present them as accessories to a readable account of the general aims and tendencies of American library work. It is hoped in particular that the book may make critics of our public libraries, at home and abroad, realize what these institutions are trying to do, and how far they have succeeded in doing it.

The issue of a new edition having become necessary, a considerable number of changes have been made in the text, bringing the statistical information up to date, and chronicling numerous advances and changes in library administration made during the past eight years.

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THE AMERICAN PUBLIC LIBRARY

CHAPTER I

THE MODERN LIBRARY IDEA

TOGETHER with the recent great multiplication of popular libraries in the United States—partly as a cause of it; partly, too, as a result of it—has arisen a new conception of the library's aims and duties. As nearly as it is possible to express this in a few words, it may be described by saying that the library is now required to be an active, not merely a passive, force; it not only guards and preserves its books, but it makes them accessible to those who want them and it tries to see that those who need them realize that need and act accordingly. The oldest libraries were storehouses, first and foremost; as their privileges were extended to larger numbers of persons, they tried more and more to aid their readers; they classified their books, arranged them systematically, catalogued them. But not until very recent years did the library begin to conceive of its duties as extending to the entire community, instead of being limited to those who voluntarily entered its doors. The modern public library believes that it should find a reader for every book on its shelves and provide a book for every reader in its community, and that it should in all cases bring book and reader together. This is the

THE MODERN LIBRARY IDEA

meaning of the great multiplication of facilities in the modern library—the lending of books for home use, free access to shelves, cheerful and homelike library buildings, rooms for children, coöperation with schools, inter-library loans, longer hours of opening, more useful catalogues and lists, the extension of branch-library systems and of traveling and home libraries, coördination of work through lectures and exhibits—the thousand and one activities that distinguish the modern library from its more passive predecessor.

✓ This broadening of the library idea and the consequent ramification of the functions of the library in so many different directions has not taken place without opposition, nor is it accepted to-day, even by all librarians. It has found its greatest exemplification in the United States because we are little hampered by tradition and anxious to try experiments. It might have been expected that some of the experiments would be rash or even grotesque. Scarcely a line of library extension has not been followed too far or given one or another odd twist by some one, but in the main the growth has been healthy and has followed directions of proved advantage to the public. In every one of these directions objectors have arisen to reprove or decry; some of the greatest steps in advance, like that of open access to shelves, were at the outset advocated by a small minority. The new ideas have had to win their way, but demonstrated usefulness has quickly broken down opposition and has led to general adoption.

Above all, the modern library ideas owe their success to the very fact that their advocates have been active men; those who dislike them are passive, but passive opposition, while it may keep one or two libraries con-

THE MODERN LIBRARY IDEA

servative or "old-fashioned" here and there, has no leaven in it. Possibly the "old-fashioned librarian" has not made himself heard and felt sufficiently; there can be no sane progress without steady and reasoned opposition, and our library ideas have perhaps run a little wild occasionally. Of late the most violent opposition to the modern library idea has been on the part of some members of the profession in England, who have condemned with heat what they characterize as American library "tomfoolery" and extravagance. Their charges appear, on analysis, to be based on the assumption that it is not the business of the library to deal with that part of the community that does not voluntarily come to it. This is the old library idea pure and simple; it is perfectly clear-cut and understandable, perhaps more so than the new idea. An extension, like the overflow of a river, is often somewhat irregular and undefined at its boundaries. The clearer and more compact theory of library function naturally appeals to our British cousins.

But the modern, or perhaps they would prefer to say the American, library idea is simply tantamount to a confession that the library, as a distributor, must obey the laws that all distributors must obey, if they are to succeed, in the largest sense. Other distributors search out these laws and comply with them, because they are pecuniarily interested; the librarian, having no direct pecuniary interest in increased output, naturally realizes his position a little later; yet he must ultimately realize it and act upon it.

Now the successful distributor through trade is precisely he who does not sit down and wait for customers. He takes the whole community as a group of possible clients; he tries to suit the tastes of each and to create a

THE MODERN LIBRARY IDEA

demand for his goods where it does not exist. The librarian must do likewise if he desires to distribute his goods as widely and as effectively as possible, and if he believes in the modern library idea, he does so desire.

Such a comparison as this, of the work of a library with ordinary trade, is highly distasteful to many persons, but this is a case where the children of this world are wiser in their generation than the children of light. The comparison of library work with trade holds, of course, only in so far as both are systems of distribution. The laws of hydraulics, which govern the distribution of a liquid through pipes, hold for a poisonous fluid as well as a nutritious one; similarly, the laws of distribution of a collection of objects to a group of persons hold, whether those objects be books or cakes of soap, whether the distributors be paid salaries by the public or receive money a few cents at a time from individual purchasers.

In the following pages an attempt is made to describe faithfully, in some detail, the work of American libraries; and as the modern library idea is so largely the American idea, the reader may judge whether recent extensions of the function of the public library are or are not to the public advantage.

CHAPTER II

LIBRARY GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT IN THE UNITED STATES

THE American public library, as at present constituted, is the outgrowth of an essentially modern movement; but this had its earlier beginnings and manifestations. In Prof. Herbert B. Adams's report on "Public Libraries and Popular Education," prepared for the Regents of the New York State University (Albany, 1900), the author specifies nineteen "original library types," of which possibly the following may be considered to embody in some respects one or more functions of the modern public library:

(1) The church or parish libraries established in many of the colonies, especially in the South, by Rev. Dr. Thomas Bray, founder and secretary of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, early in the eighteenth century. To Maryland alone Dr. Bray sent thirty parish libraries, embracing 2,545 books. Dr. Bray accepted in 1696 an appointment from the Bishop of London as commissary of ecclesiastical affairs in Maryland on the express condition that he should be aided in the provision of these parochial libraries for his missionaries, and in a pamphlet issued in London in 1697 he announced his intention of extending his scheme "for the supply of all the English colonies in America therewith." In 1698 one of Dr. Bray's libraries was placed

LIBRARY GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

in New York for Trinity Parish. Although these libraries were primarily for the use of the clergy, they were open to the public, and seem to have antedated the town libraries of New England by more than a century.

(2) Town libraries, of which the first is said to have been opened in Salisbury, Conn., in 1803. Similar to these, and in many cases much more flourishing, were school-district libraries, which are not to be confused with school libraries. The school district was selected as a smaller and more convenient unit than the town, and the schoolhouse furnished a place to keep the books, which were, however, mostly for adults. School-district libraries were authorized by law in New York in 1835.

(3) Subscription libraries. These are "public" in the sense that they are open to all on the same conditions, without discrimination. The coöperative or joint-stock type is represented by the Philadelphia Library Company, founded by Benjamin Franklin. The "Mercantile" type, represented by the libraries of that name in New York, Boston, and St. Louis, arose about 1820, originating in the desire to furnish good reading for the younger employees of business houses. In some of these libraries any person who can certify that he is employed on a salary is still charged a lower annual subscription than other borrowers.

The American libraries accessible as means of literary culture a century or more ago were, all told, as given by Horace E. Scudder in his monograph on "Public Libraries a Hundred Years Ago," one in Philadelphia, two or three small ones in Pennsylvania, one in Charleston, one in New York, one in Newport, one in Providence, one in Portland, one in Salem, one in Leominster, one in Hingham, and the "revolving library" of Kit-

LIBRARIES OF LONG AGO

tery and York, Me., apparently so called because it was contained in a revolving case. There were also the college libraries, which, as often at the present day, were used not only by officers and students, but also by the educated men of the community. The nearest approach in Revolutionary days to what we call a free public library was, according to Mr. Scudder, the Philadelphia Library, which, although, as we have seen, it was a joint-stock affair, gave large liberty of consultation to non-stockholders. It is estimated by Messrs. Warren and Clark, editors of the volume on "Public Libraries in the United States" issued by the United States Bureau of Education in 1876, that the number of books contained in all the "public" libraries of the country in the year 1800, including book clubs, social libraries, and so on, was not more than 80,000, or about one volume to seventy inhabitants. The editors elsewhere in the same report state their conclusions that between 1775 and 1800 there were established in the United States 30 libraries, which at the time of writing numbered 242,171 volumes; between 1800 and 1825, 179 libraries, with 2,056,113 volumes; between 1825 and 1850, 551 libraries, with 2,807,218 volumes, and between 1850 and 1875, 22,040 libraries, with 5,481,068. These figures, it must be remembered, apply to these libraries or their successors in 1875; the writers could obtain no statistics on the number of volumes in each group at the end of its own twenty-five-year period.

The joint-stock form of library is in its simplest form a book club, as in the so-called "social libraries" of Massachusetts, the subscription being the purchase of a share or the payment of a life membership, sometimes with an annual subscription. In some cases, however, be-

LIBRARY GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

sides this payment for the privileges of the club or library, an additional sum was required for each book withdrawn, and in numerous instances the use of the newer or more desirable books was "auctioned off" to the highest bidder. This method of distributing books was in vogue in Connecticut at least as late as 1880.

The really progressive free public library belongs to the latter half of the nineteenth century. Before that time the idea of a collection of books for the use of an entire community, supported by that community from the proceeds of a tax, can scarcely be said to have existed. The town library at Salisbury, Conn., named above, was established in 1803 by a bequest, but the town is said to have supported it for some time, although it is not now in existence. Possibly the oldest existing library of the kind is the one at Peterborough, N. H., which has been maintained by public taxation ever since its foundation in 1833. Legislative authorization for the establishment and maintenance of public libraries by municipalities dates from 1848, when the Massachusetts General Court, largely through the pioneer work of Josiah Quincy, empowered the city of Boston to raise \$5,000 yearly to support a public library. Under this act the present Boston Public Library was opened in 1854. The act was extended to all towns in the state in 1851. Similar laws were enacted by New Hampshire in 1849, by Maine in 1854, by Vermont in 1865, and by Ohio in 1867; and they are now quite common throughout the Union.

Really active progress along the lines of the "modern library idea" dates from the formation of the American Library Association in 1876. The rise of this

organization and its work are considered more in detail in another chapter.

The chief distinctively "modern" features of American public libraries, besides public support, are freedom of access to shelves, work with children, coöperation with schools, branch libraries, traveling libraries, and so-called "library advertising"—the effort to make the library and its work known in the community and to induce people to use it. While all these features are treated in other chapters, it may be well to group here such facts as are known about their origin.

Open access, of course, has always been common in small popular libraries, but was until recently considered by most libraries impracticable for larger institutions. In the Pawtucket (R. I.) Free Library the shelves were open as early as 1879. In a discussion of free access in the Conference of Librarians held in London, October 2-5, 1877, at which many Americans were present, the majority of those who spoke, including Dr. Melvil Dewey, condemned it, although there were some notable exceptions, English and American. The first recorded discussion on the subject in the American Library Association was in 1888. Only partial free access was approved by most of those who spoke in favor of the open shelf, but there was a notable exception, Miss Martha F. Nelson, who reported that the public library at Trenton, N. J., had for some time opened its shelves freely to the public. The leaven, in fact, had been working for some time, although in a symposium arranged by *The Library Journal* in 1890 absolutely free access was neither reported nor advocated by any of the participants, who included some of the best-known American librarians. In an address before the Massachusetts

LIBRARY GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

Library Club in 1891, however, Thomas Wentworth Higginson lauded the open-access library as the "free library of the future," and mentioned as large libraries that were carrying it out successfully those of Cleveland and Columbus, Ohio, and the Boston Athenæum. The last named, however, was not a free library. The Cleveland Public Library seems to have been the first in which open access was introduced on a really large scale. The plan was introduced at the beginning of April, 1890, and in the following year Mr. Brett reported at the San Francisco Conference of the American Library Association that it had been successful, and that his circulation had been increased by it. At the same conference Dr. Herbert Putnam, then librarian of the Minneapolis Public Library, described his experience with open access, which as yet was not granted to everyone at all times, and described it somewhat cautiously in his title as "a possible function of branch libraries." "Whatever the perplexities of detail, freedom of access," he said in conclusion, "cannot long be refused." At the Lake Placid Conference of 1894 Dr. Steiner, of Baltimore, presented the results of an investigation in which 135 libraries in English-speaking communities had been interrogated and 105 had responded. He reported that nearly all libraries granted free access to a few reference books and many to nearly all such books. Most libraries restricted access to certain classes of books and some to certain hours. Of the libraries that allowed access to the circulating books, "the general verdict is against access to fiction and juvenile books." Six libraries that had tried free access reported abandonment, and Cleveland was the only large library reporting "unrestricted access of all persons, to all books, at all

times"—in other words, free access as at present understood. From this time forward, however, the open-shelf system rapidly gained in adherents. The opening in 1895 of the Free Library of Philadelphia, in which access was from the outset entirely free, gave it great impetus.

In regard to the next feature that has been named as distinctively modern, namely, work with children, its recent character may be seen from the fact that the voluminous Government report on "Public Libraries in the United States," issued in 1876, has in its index of thirteen closely printed double-column pages not a single entry under "child" or "children." The index to *The Library Journal* for 1876-97, containing 130 pages, has 38 such entries, but only 22 are previous to 1897, and none at all previous to 1887.

A children's library was established in New York City in 1885 at the initiative of Miss Emily S. Hanaway, principal of the primary department of Grammar School No. 28. In a paper read in 1887 at the Columbia Library School Miss Hanaway says that the idea came to her in the summer of 1885 during a meeting of the National Association of Teachers. "A thought," she writes, "as if some one had leaned over my shoulder and suggested it, came suddenly into my mind: 'Why not give the children reading rooms?'" She asked Prof. E. E. White if the plan were feasible, and he replied, "Yes; but it is gigantic." Nevertheless, the library was started in the autumn, with a few hundred books, at 243 Ninth Avenue, and after being closed for the summer of 1886, was reopened in February, 1887, at 436 West Twenty-fifth Street. Thence it was removed temporarily to Columbia College, and in April, 1888, to

the third floor of the George Bruce Library, then a new branch of the New York Free Circulating system, whose children's room it thus practically became. In the following December, however, the trustees asked it to vacate, on the ground that the children created a disturbance by passing through the two lower floors to reach the third. This is specially interesting because at present nearly all the children's rooms of the New York Public Library, having each a circulation of 500 to 800 daily, are on upper floors, and the children who use them pass through part of the lower floor to reach the stairs. The children's library was then removed to the third floor of 1554 Broadway, and the last public record of its activities was an appeal for aid. But nearly two years earlier, and but a short time after its inception, in the autumn of 1886, a separate library for children was opened as a branch of the Aguilar Free Library at 624 Fifth Street, New York City, and this maintained its existence for years, being finally continued as the children's room of the Avenue C Branch (now the Tompkins Square Branch of the New York Public Library). In a paper by Miss Mary W. Plummer (*Library Journal*, November, 1897) the separation of children from the adult users of a library by means of a room of their own is stated to have originated with the Brookline Public Library, which opened its children's reading room in 1890; yet this is antedated by several years, as noted above, by the children's library on the third floor of the Bruce Branch, in New York.

A list of libraries giving special attention to children's needs was published by Dr. Melvil Dewey in *Public Libraries* (June, 1896). From this it appears that at that date separate rooms for children had been



CHILDREN'S READING ROOM, FLATBUSH BRANCH, BROOKLYN PUBLIC LIBRARY.



CHARGING DESK, CHILDREN'S DEPARTMENT, SEWARD PARK BRANCH, NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY.

CHILDREN'S ROOMS

opened and were being maintained by the Cambridge, Boston, and Brookline public libraries, and substitutes for such rooms, such as corners, alcoves, or tables, by the Buffalo, Cleveland, Lowell, Medford, and Pawtucket libraries. Rooms had been planned for the Pratt Institute, Providence, Detroit, Pittsburgh, Osterhout of Wilkesbarre, and Lynn, Mass., libraries. An article by Miss Mary E. Dousman, of the Milwaukee Public Library, published in *The Library Journal* (September, 1896), mentions also children's departments in the public libraries of Milwaukee, Denver, Detroit, New Haven, Omaha, Seattle, and San Francisco. It was not long after this that a separate children's room became a component part of every properly constructed and operated public library. Miss L. E. Stearns' "Report on Reading for the Young" in the Lake Placid Conference of the American Library Association in 1894 had already attracted wide attention, but the first general discussion of children's work in the Association took place at the Philadelphia Conference of 1897, and was largely taken up with arguments on the relative merits of separate children's libraries and children's rooms. In the article by Miss Plummer, cited above, it is recorded that of fifteen children's departments, eleven circulated books from the children's room, while in the remaining four there were collections of several hundred volumes not to be taken from the room. The number of volumes shelved ranged from 300 to 20,000; the daily circulation from 65 to 35. Only twelve years later than this, the New York Public Library had in its children's rooms nearly 150,000 volumes, with a yearly circulation of 2,200,000. Other historical facts may be found in the chapter on work with children.

LIBRARY GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

As regards coöperation with schools, it is probable that the essential relationships of schools and libraries have been recognized for a very long time. School libraries and libraries in school buildings are old in this country, as we have seen. Yet systematic effort in public libraries to work hand in hand with the teacher is comparatively recent. An address was delivered before the teachers of Quincy, Mass., in 1876, by Charles Francis Adams on "The Use which Could Be Made of the Public Library of the Town in Connection with the School System in General, and More Particularly with the High and Upper-grade Grammar Schools." This address was termed by C. A. Cutter at the time "the fullest discussion yet published of a question . . . that is only just beginning to attract the attention it deserves." Mr. Adams's treatment of the subject is sufficiently up to date to satisfy the most advanced library of to-day, thirty years after the delivery of the address. The Quincy library had just adopted a new rule under which deposits of books could be sent to schools. Mr. Adams points out that this is the opportunity to make the library "a more living element" in the town school system, and he urges teachers to call on the library for the books that they need. "When you begin to call," he says, "we shall know exactly what to buy; and then, at last, we could arrange in printed bulletins the courses of reading which your experience would point out as best. From that time both schools and library would begin to do their full work together, and the last would become what it ought to be, the natural complement of the first—the People's College." At the conference of the American Library Association held in Boston in 1879 numerous papers on the general subject of the read-

BRANCHES

ing of school children were presented, among them one by W. E. Foster, of Providence, on "The School and the Library: Their Mutual Relation," in which he urges modern methods of coöperation, but gives no instances. *The Library Journal* (April, 1897) publishes a symposium with several dates. According to this, the Worcester (Mass.) Public Library began this work in 1879, Cleveland in 1884, and Detroit in 1887. It seems to have been limited at first to the furnishing of supplementary reading. Milwaukee began class-room library work in 1889. A special department to furnish books to schools was established by the New York Free Circulating Library in 1897, and in 1898 Buffalo organized its well-known work (see Chapter VII). In 1899 Brookline opened a "school reference room." In 1906 the New York Public Library organized its relations with schools, other than those concerned with supplying books, in a way to be described later.

The first free public branch library in the United States is stated in *The Library Journal* (April, 1877) to have been the East Boston Branch of the Boston Public Library, opened in 1870, although the establishment of branches had been authorized in the original acts of the Massachusetts Legislature, noted above. Branches had been successfully operated in England, and unsuccessful subscription branches, now long discontinued, had been opened in surrounding towns by the Mercantile Library of New York. Doubt was felt of the expediency of the East Boston branch; but the experiment was most successful, and in March, 1877, there were six branches, with two outlying dependencies. For several years after, progress was delayed by discussion of the relative value of branches and de-

LIBRARY GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT

livery stations. Boston adopted both. Some large libraries, notably those of Chicago and Jersey City, established large systems of delivery stations, without any branches at all. In other places, however, particularly in New York, systems of small libraries grew up, without relation to any large central institution, and these were called "branches" by analogy. In a paper contributed to *The Library Journal* (July, 1893) by George Watson Cole the writer speaks of both branches and delivery stations as "a somewhat new and untried experiment." In a comparison of branch-library systems made by the present writer in 1898 (*Library Journal*, January) the only systems treated are the New York Free Circulating, the Aguilar, the Boston, the Philadelphia, the Enoch Pratt, of Baltimore, and the Pratt Institute, of Brooklyn. An interesting discussion of branch-library administration at the Chautauqua Conference of the American Library Association in this same year indicates that by this time the tide had fairly begun to turn away from the delivery-station idea, and only ten years later we find small places, like East Orange, N. J., building branch libraries, and a citizen's committee instancing Chicago's great system of delivery stations, probably the best in the world, as a count in an indictment of inefficiency. This very rapid spread of the branch-library idea is doubtless in part due to the pressure of circumstances that forced the establishment of small local libraries in cities like New York, Brooklyn, and Philadelphia. These systems showed what could be accomplished through branches alone and served as a more convincing object lesson than the quarter-century-old branches attached to a few large libraries as mere appanages.

TRAVELING LIBRARIES

As for traveling libraries, we hear of them in Scotland as early as 1810, where they were used in parish work. In 1877 the public library of Melbourne, Australia, lent books in cases of fifty each to out-of-town libraries, circulating thus about 8,000 volumes through eighteen localities. The first educational traveling libraries were sent out from Oxford University, England, to local committees in towns where university extension lectures were given. The origin of the traveling library is thus essentially British. In this country the Seaman's Friend Society has long been sending traveling libraries on shipboard, and the Government has also for many years sent collections of books to lighthouses. According to Prof. Adams's monograph on "Public Libraries and Popular Education," from which quotation has already been made, the State of New York first practically adapted the educational traveling library to local needs in this country. The sending out of such libraries by the State was authorized by a resolution of the Regents dated July 10, 1889, but the first library was not sent out until 1893. In 1895 Michigan and Montana enacted traveling-library legislation, and in 1896 these were followed by Iowa. In the latter year a system was established in Wisconsin at the personal expense of Hon. I. H. Stout, a trustee of the library at Menomonie, Wis. Traveling-library work done by public libraries within their own territory began in connection with work with schools, as outlined above, although the collections of books thus sent were at first seldom called "traveling libraries," and are often still known simply as "deposits." In 1897 the New York Free Circulating Library, which had for several years been sending books to schools from separate branches,

formed its traveling-library department, which now, continued as the Traveling-library Office of the New York Public Library, does probably the largest work of this sort in the world. In 1896 the Free Library of Philadelphia began to send out traveling libraries, and by this time the method had become firmly established. Its more recent growth in usefulness and popularity is familiar, and it doubtless has an even wider future before it.

With regard to advertising, or "publicity," as most libraries choose to call it, the thing is not new, but realization of its importance is quite recent. Beginning with printed lists of books and monthly bulletins, the printed publicity of the public library now includes posters, placards, illustrated handbooks and pamphlets on phases of its work, and even paid advertising in the newspapers. Other publicity devices include "Library days," "book-weeks," "visitors' nights," and other periods or occasions on which the claims of the library are pushed, together with exhibits of various kinds, both in the library itself and at local fairs or celebrations. A satisfied public, of course, is the very best agent of publicity.

There is now an A. L. A. committee on publicity, in whose latest report the employment of a paid publicity agent for the Association is advocated.

This somewhat scrappy collection of data regarding the early history of some of the features of the modern public library is, after all, a faithful presentation of the way in which that library, as we now know it, came into being. It is a "thing of shreds and patches," though now welded together into a complete whole.

CHAPTER III

THE LIBRARY AND THE STATE

WHAT is a "Public" library? The word "public" has been and is still used in this and similar connections with various shades of meaning; in the same phrase it may even have different significations in different communities. For instance a "public" school in the United States is a free school, supported by the public; in England it is a school in which tuition is charged, but which is open to all on the same conditions. In this country the word has been held to imply use without payment; yet a "public" conveyance always requires a fee. It may signify municipal or state ownership; yet a "public" carriage is always privately owned. It may denote accessibility; yet a "public" building may be in great part, or even wholly, denied to the public. As used in connection with libraries it has been and is still applied to privately owned institutions whose use is given free to the public, such as the Pratt Institute Free Library, in Brooklyn, N. Y.; to private corporations doing public work by contract, like the Public Libraries of New York and Buffalo; to libraries owned by the municipality and supported by taxation, like the Boston Public Library, and even to institutions where a fee is charged for the use of part or all of the collection, so long as there is no discrimination between different users or classes of users. In this

last category, indeed, must be placed the increasing number of public libraries that have adopted the " St. Louis plan " or " pay-duplicate system " for popular fiction.

Finding it necessary to adopt an official definition of a " public library," the New York State authorities include under this designation only libraries owned directly by the municipality, supported by taxation and free to the public. On this definition the New York Public Library, the Pratt Institute Free Library, and many others equally well known are not public libraries at all. The definition must be regarded as technical and local. In general, a " public " library in the United States is either owned or controlled by the public, or freely accessible to the public; or it has two of these features or all three of them.

Where a public library is owned by a city or town it is generally managed by a separate board of trustees, although sometimes it is operated as part of the educational work of the municipality, and sometimes its governing board has other public institutions, such as a museum or an art gallery, under its charge. Although something may be said in favor of combinations of this sort, they often result in discrimination against the library, and it is the general opinion among librarians that the board of directors, trustees, or managers that administers the library should be as independent as possible.

The board may have various degrees of affiliation with the municipal government; the connection may be simply that all or part of its members are appointed by the mayor, the board when organized acting as a separate corporation and often constituting a separate body

LIBRARY AND CITY

in law. On the other hand, appropriations may be made and bills paid as in the case of any other city department. The employees may then be on the city pay-rolls and are often subject to civil-service regulations.

Change in the form of the city government, especially from the introduction of the "commission" plan, has occasionally introduced confusion into library administration, either because the library board has been formally abolished by law and the library placed under the jurisdiction of some department having little or nothing to do with it, or because the law has left the relation of the library to the new government in doubt. In 1912 and again in 1913, a special committee of the American Library Association on the Relation of the Library to the Municipality, called attention to these facts and strongly recommended that where the library is grouped with other city institutions, its educational functions should be publicly recognized.

A close connection with the city is apt, on occasion, to throw the library into politics. A plan that removes the library from city ownership, while preserving a wholesome amount of public control, makes the library a private corporation, doing public work by contract. The contract may specify to what extent the city shall contribute to the library's support, whether it shall furnish sites for branch buildings, etc., and, on the other hand, what privileges the library shall offer to the public, during what hours and on what days it shall be open, and so on. The manner in which the city appropriation shall be paid over and accounted for, will also naturally be defined. This form of connection has generally resulted from the transformation of a former subscription library

THE LIBRARY AND THE STATE

into a free public library. It is an effective method of making such a change without requiring the older body to transfer to the city the title to its property; but it may also be adopted for a newly organized library with equal value and success.

The board of library trustees, however formed and constituted, may be of any size and may or may not do its work through committees. Much is to be said in favor of a small board, which is more easily convened and is less unwieldy than a larger body; but the necessity that different classes of the community shall be properly represented, and the desire to compliment men of influence and to interest them in the library's work, often make it of considerable size. A somewhat apocryphal board, sometimes cited by librarians as the limit in this direction, is said to have consisted of thirty ladies who met three times a week.

The main duties of a library board are to hold and care for the library property, both buildings and securities, and to decide on the main features of library policy. It should concern itself generally with results; seldom with methods. Having selected a competent librarian, who stands to the board in the relation of both executive officer and expert adviser, it leaves him free to carry out the policy of the library in whatever way may seem to him best. Practically, the measure of control exercised by the board over the librarian varies in different places. It is naturally less, the more perfect the confidence reposed in the executive officer. The size of the board has little to do with it. In some libraries a small board, meeting frequently, perhaps once a week, acts as a committee of the whole and does duty for the half dozen committees into which a larger board is com-

monly divided. A large board, meeting once a month, does little more, usually, than to ratify the action of its various committees, which have met in the interim as often as necessary. The names and duties of these committees vary widely. Some of the most common are: an executive committee, to exercise the authority of the board when it is not in session; a book committee, to select books and authorize their purchase; a finance committee; and a building or house committee, to care for the building or buildings of the library. Sometimes the operation of the library is specially intrusted to a committee on administration or a library committee, which confirms staff appointments. There may also be committees on art, on lectures, on museum exhibits, and so on *ad libitum*. The number of these committees is by no means a measure of the degree of supervision exercised by the board. A large board with many committees may practically defer almost entirely to the librarian's opinion and wishes; whereas a small one with no subdivision of duties may insist on a close connection with the details of administration.

The funds at the disposal of the public library may be partly the proceeds of taxation, partly receipts in the course of administration, such as fines, partly interest on endowment funds, and partly current gifts.

The funds from taxation may be the proceeds of a special town or city tax levied for the support of the library in accordance with a state law, either mandatory or permissive. They may result simply from a municipal appropriation in accordance with law, regulated sometimes by the circulation of the library, sometimes by the provisions of a contract, as explained above. They may be also, in part, a special grant from

the state, such as the allotment of one hundred dollars, paid to every library, large or small, in the State of New York, for the purchase of books approved by the proper authorities, conditioned upon the appropriation by the trustees of an equal amount for a like purpose.

These public funds, from whatever source, may be paid to the library in a lump sum, or in regular installments, without classification, in which case they are appropriated by the trustees, either in accordance with an annual budget, or as occasion may arise, for the purposes of maintenance. Or the municipality, in making its appropriation or allotment, may itself make the classification either wholly or in part, giving a specified sum for salaries, another for fuel and light, another for books and periodicals, another for building repairs, another for rent and insurance, and so on. In case the municipal classification is broad, a closer one may be made by the trustees, so long as it does not interfere with the former. In any case the city will naturally require the library to render an account, at least once a year and perhaps oftener, of the way in which its grant has been spent. The strictness of this report and the complexity of its forms, as well as the requirement of vouchers, will depend on circumstances, and especially on the methods of bookkeeping of the particular municipality in question.

Moneys received in the regular course of administration, such as fines, payment for lost books, rebates, proceeds of the sale of catalogues, lists, or manuals, etc., are differently treated in different libraries. In some places the trustees are allowed to dispose of these as they desire, in others, the city claims jurisdiction over them, in which case it may either require them to be turned

in to the municipal treasury (sometimes, but not always, to be reappropriated to library use, as a matter of course), or it may prescribe that they shall be spent in some specified way, as for books or salaries, and duly accounted for. In this case they may be subtracted from the amount of the next annual appropriation.

Interest on endowment and current gifts the municipality, of course, does not attempt to control, unless it, instead of the board of trustees, holds the securities or receives the gifts. Here much depends on the nature of the connection between the library and the municipal government, and the possibility of confusion or disagreement is an additional argument for as independent a board of trustees as is possible.

Regarding the propriety of public support for such an institution as a library, there is now very little discussion in the United States, although such an eminent publicist as Prof. Goldwin Smith has recently pronounced against it, saying that there is no more reason for providing free books from the public purse than free food or free clothing. The American public, however, has come to consider the library as an essential part of its system of public education, and that the state should educate its citizens is now regarded by it as an axiom. The public library, indeed, is the only formal educational influence that is exerted through life. It is this view of the library that is at the base of what we have already named the modern library idea—the belief that the library should take its entire public as its *clientèle* and not simply that part of it which voluntarily seeks it out.

But quite aside from its educational functions, there are other good reasons why the library should receive

public support. It is good public policy to encourage healthful and innocent forms of recreation; hence municipal parks and playgrounds. These offer physical recreation; the library furnishes intellectual entertainment—surely no less desirable and legitimate.

Besides this, the American public has always shown itself ready to take over as a public charge any form of activity that it is convinced may be carried on better in this way than by private agencies. It is not at all afraid of being “socialistic,” and it refuses to assent to general principles; each case must be considered by itself. Private ownership and operation, in the case of general libraries, has been tried and found wanting, except for certain uses which the subscription library will probably always fill. In most cases, it has been found profitable to substitute either public ownership and operation, public ownership and support with semi-private operation, or private ownership and operation with public support and control, as has been specified above.

It has been said that municipal appropriations for library support are made by authorization of the state. Many states of the Union have special library laws, which, besides specifying the conditions of such appropriation, provide also for a measure of state aid, authorize state inspection and control, and arrange for certain forms of library activity to be carried on under the state. These are usually under the general supervision of a library commission, or committee, or its equivalent, whose secretary is a salaried official and whose headquarters are at the state capital. State aid, in money, is usually conditioned on the appropriation by the library trustees of an equal sum, and is often not

STATE LIBRARY COMMISSIONS

limited to municipally owned or supported institutions. It is sometimes required that the money be expended for books, in which case the titles must usually be approved by the commission.

Among other activities carried on under the supervision of such commissions are the management of systems of traveling libraries, the collection and dissemination of information regarding the libraries of the state, the encouragement of library extension by means of paid organizers, the maintenance of schools, classes, or "institutes" for library instruction, the publication of lists of books and other library aids, often in the form of a bulletin sent regularly to all libraries in the state, and the regular inspection of all libraries, with a report on their condition.

The members of such commissions have taken a very serious view of their duties and powers, and it may be expected that state influence over library growth and work will increase in the future. A "League of Library Commissions" has been formed, which is affiliated with the American Library Association. The members of the state commissions are librarians, educators, literary men, or library trustees and other interested business men. Indications of the increasing influence of the state in library matters are, for instance, the part played by the State library authorities in the establishment and control of the county library system in California and to a lesser degree in other states. Some 15 states now have laws allowing the establishment of county libraries and the possibilities are great, especially in rural communities. Contract with a city library for the extension of its service to the county is usually allowed. There was county library

legislation in Indiana in 1816, but nothing noteworthy was done until much later. The library of Washington County, Md., whose "book wagon" has made it famous, was established April 9, 1898, and public support was authorized by legislation on April 14. The Ohio county-library legislation followed on April 26, of the same year, and the work was taken up by Hamilton and Van Wert counties on a large scale.

Further increase of state influence appears in attempts to require state license for librarians as well as teachers, none of which has yet been successful.

These activities, as well as those of individual libraries, in enlarging their field of work, are sometimes termed collectively "Library extension."

One of the earliest and most useful functions of a commission was the distribution of books throughout the state. Traveling libraries are also operated by other than state agencies and are discussed in another chapter.

Instead of regarding with jealousy the assumption by the state of powers like these, librarians generally welcome the increase of systematic work fostered by state aid and control. They are active everywhere in efforts to establish state commissions, where such do not exist, and the opponents of their efforts are usually persons unfamiliar with the modern library movement, or politicians who see in such action no benefit to themselves. In some cases, where legislatures have refused to enact a proper state library law, state library associations, voluntary bodies of librarians, have agreed to initiate and carry on, at their own expense, some of the activities usually supervised and financed by the state.

This increasing exercise of state library control is especially interesting at a time when, in political mat-

ters, the influence of the state seems to be shrinking while that of the Federal Government has been swelling—has indeed, according to some, been swollen almost beyond its constitutional limits. In the case of libraries, save alone for the activities of the Library of Congress, those of the general government have been almost vanishingly small. Certain libraries, to be sure, are designated by the members of Congress in their districts as depositaries of public documents, and the Superintendent of documents has endeavored, of late years, to establish closer relations with these and other libraries, that such documents may be more efficiently preserved and used. Under the present law, however, a member of Congress may arbitrarily and suddenly change any one of his designated depositaries; and this has sometimes been done quite to the public disadvantage and without apparent remedy. The Bureau of Education, upon occasion, has collected and published valuable statistics of libraries. The chief bond, however, between the Government at Washington and libraries throughout the country is the Library of Congress, under the broad interpretation of the laws regulating its work, made by Dr. Putnam, the present librarian, who has endeavored to make the institution in fact what it should be in name—the National Library.

The library now prints catalogue cards for all current deposits under the copyright law—that is, for all American copyrighted publications—as well as for selected foreign purchases and some of the most important books already on the shelves. It duplicates these cards freely and sells them at cost, as public documents, to all libraries that desire to use them, thus acting as a great central cataloguing bureau for the whole country. It

also occasionally prints and distributes works of national importance, such as the American Library Association catalogue of best books, which would otherwise probably not see the light. These activities, together with its liberal policy of inter-library loans and the willingness of its staff to give library information, have brought it into very close touch with the libraries of the various states.

Besides the laws that directly affect libraries, there are others, both state and Federal, that do so indirectly. In the case of Federal statutes, libraries are specially interested in those that regulate the tariff, copyright, and postage. The connection of the tariff and copyright with the maintenance of libraries is treated in Chapter XI, but it may be noted that the interest of librarians in the copyright question has been officially recognized by the Federal Government by asking the American Library Association to take part, through delegates, in the Copyright Conference of 1906-7, called by the Librarian of Congress at the suggestion of the congressional committees having the matter in charge, to formulate a comprehensive copyright law. The bill as thus framed and subsequently modified became a law in 1909.

Vigorous attempts were made for some time to have the privileges of second-class postage extended to library books, with the idea that inter-library loans and also a mail-order use of free libraries would thereby be fostered. These efforts met with no success, largely through the feeling that the Post Office was already transmitting too much bulky mail matter at a loss. Books for the blind were made free to or from libraries in 1904, although, owing to the limitation of weight observed in the carrier service and the inordinate bulk of most of these books, they could not be delivered at the

LIBRARY POSTAGE

homes of those who needed them. The present parcel-post was established in 1913, and in 1914 its provisions were extended to books, thereby greatly lowering the postal rates for short distances, though actually raising them for long ones, owing to the workings of the "zone" system. Arrangements were made at once by many libraries for sending books to their readers by post. A deposit is usually required, owing to the rule that parcels may not be sent "collect." This requirement has hitherto somewhat limited the usefulness of parcel-post distribution. Books so sent are delivered at the house door, but must be returned at the library or posted in a parcel-box. Books for the blind, sent free by mail, are now also classed as parcels and delivered at the house. Of 12,819 books for the blind circulated in New York in 1908, 8,558 were sent free by mail.

Were the postage on library books greatly reduced, probably the mechanism of library distribution would undergo a change resembling that indicated by the above figures. This would mean not only a change of methods, but also a burden on the local mail. Whether this would be to the public advantage may be doubted.

Existing postal regulations exclude from the mails certain library forms that have long passed through them without causing question, and that still continue to do so in a majority of cases. The Post Office Department passes only on specific cases that have been brought to its attention, but its decisions have been adverse to the libraries when made. The law that is held to be violated is that forbidding duns or threats on postal cards. The usual form of notice reminding a delinquent borrower that he has incurred a fine or informing him that a fine will be imposed in cases of non-

return of a book, may be excluded from the mails, and has been so excluded by the authorities when their attention has been called to it. In such cases a form simply calling the delinquent's attention to the rules of the library as printed on the book pocket, on a book plate, or elsewhere, has been approved by the postal authorities as legal. As regards the ordinary laws of the state, it is probable that libraries often unconsciously contravene them, and are allowed to continue to do so, simply because no one cares to interfere. In a case that occurred a few years ago, the regulations of a library whose connection with its municipality was close were declared by the city's legal adviser to be totally inoperative because they had not been enacted by the municipal legislative body. Steps, of course, were taken to have them so enacted at once, but fines incurred previous to this enactment were duly charged and paid, although a protest would doubtless have been sustained had it been made. This state of things may now exist in other municipalities.

Again, the legal responsibility of guarantors has never been exactly defined. Doubtless they could be sued at law for books damaged or not returned by their protégés, and this possibility is often used to frighten them into payment; but suit for such small amounts would hardly be brought by the library.

Legal questions may also arise frequently with relation to the enforcement of discipline—for instance, the ejection of a reader who is deemed to be disorderly, and his subsequent claim that it was accomplished with undue violence; or the exclusion of readers from library privileges on account of noncompliance with some regulation. It is certainly well for a librarian to be familiar with his legal rights and duties in such cases, so that

he may act quickly and decisively. In case the matter goes so far as an arrest, either for disorder or for theft or mutilation of books, it is also necessary for him to have some elementary knowledge of the rules of evidence. Many a vandal has escaped punishment for lack of evidence which library assistants have been in a position to obtain, and which they have failed to obtain simply through ignorance. A magistrate will usually hold a person for trial only when there is evidence or, at any rate, prospect of obtaining evidence that will induce a jury to convict. Some magistrates also, for reasons that are not very clear, appear to exercise special leniency in the case of offenders against libraries. A man who takes books from the shelves and succeeds in getting them into the street before he is caught is released at once when he pleads that he intended to have them charged, but forgot to do so. Another, detected by a custodian when removing valuable plates from a book, is allowed to go free because the witness did not see him in the precise act of detaching the leaves.

Of course, as the trustees of valuable property, both in real estate and securities, the library authorities may become involved in litigation of almost all kinds. It may be even necessary for the trustees to obtain special legislation to override the conditions of bequests when such have become burdensome through unforeseen contingencies, or to enable consolidation with other bodies, to the public advantage. The board of trustees of a large library frequently includes a law committee among its standing committees to take care of such business as this. The conditions of such legal business, however, are in no wise different from those affecting other corporations and need no special treatment here.

CHAPTER IV

THE LIBRARY AND THE PUBLIC

IF the modern public library has any reason for being, and particularly if it has any reason for demanding public support, this lies in its continued usefulness to the public. Such usefulness is the goal at which it must aim, and the test by which each of its methods and results must be judged. Ease and smoothness of administration, though highly desirable, is so wholly because it may further public service or lessen public expense; and any regulation that makes for a smoother running of the library machinery while it lessens the amount of good that the public can get from the library, or the speed or ease with which that good may be obtained, is a bad regulation.

There have been many such regulations in libraries, but they are being eliminated. Where they remain it is due usually to a legitimate difference of opinion on the score of their public usefulness. The ordinary library regulations, which often appear to the individual user unduly restrictive, are so only because it is necessary by their means to guard the interests of the public as a whole. It may, for instance, be to the interest of the individual user that he should take out an unlimited number of books and keep them for an indefinite time; but the rights of other users require that both number and time should be restricted.

REGISTRATION

At the outset the prospective user of the library is called upon to show that he is a proper person to take out books. What this means depends somewhat on the regulations of the library. If its use is restricted to resi-



No. _____

I, _____

an inhabitant of the City of New York,

Residing at _____

Occupation _____

Grade _____

hereby apply for the right to use the New York Public Library, Muhlenberg Branch, 209 West 23rd Street, and promise to obey all its rules, and give immediate notice at the library of any change of residence.

Refers to-See over.

Reference's Name _____

Business Address _____

Business _____

APPLICATION FOR PRIVILEGE OF DRAWING BOOKS, NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY.

dents, he must show that he is a resident; if to persons above a certain age, that he possesses this age. If a certificate of character or a guaranty against loss of books is required, this must be given. A blank form of appli-

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cation, of proper size to be conveniently filed, is furnished by the library, and in case time is required to obtain the necessary information or certification, and to verify it, this period of time must, of course, elapse before books can be drawn. This is a hardship in many cases, and the tendency is to cut down requirements for use as far as possible. Guaranty is generally useful only because it implies a certification of character; as

THIS APPLICATION MUST BE FILLED OUT IN INK, AND APPROVED, BEFORE CARD IS ISSUED.					
No. _____					
(Do not write here.)					
I, the undersigned, apply for a reader's card in the St. Louis Public (Free) Library.					
CROSS OUT WHAT DOES NOT APPLY.	<table><tr><td rowspan="3">{</td><td>am a resident of the city.</td></tr><tr><td>am a taxpayer in the city</td></tr><tr><td>have permanent employment in the city.</td></tr></table>	{	am a resident of the city.	am a taxpayer in the city	have permanent employment in the city.
{	am a resident of the city.				
	am a taxpayer in the city				
	have permanent employment in the city.				
and hereby agree to comply with all the rules and regulations of the Library, to make good any loss or injury sustained by it through issuing a card entitling me to draw books, and TO GIVE IMMEDIATE NOTICE OF CHANGE OF RESIDENCE.					
Name (in ink) _____					
Residence _____					
Occupation _____					
Place of Business _____					
LIBRARY BUREAU © 1909					

APPLICATION FOR PRIVILEGE OF DRAWING BOOKS,
ST. LOUIS PUBLIC LIBRARY.

for the actual payment by guarantors for lost books, it is practically a voluntary matter, almost impossible of enforcement. Where it has been retained, as in some large cities, this is largely for its value as a moral obligation. Some libraries even drop the requirement of a character certificate on any good evidence that applicant is a responsible person, the presence of his name in a city directory being generally accepted. Other libraries that have retained the requirement of guaranty in

its extreme form may allow the freest exception where an applicant is known to the librarian personally or by reputation. There is little danger now that a man or woman of national reputation will be required to obtain a certificate of character from the corner grocer before being privileged to draw books, as used to happen not infrequently in the earlier and stricter days. Of course, requirements of this kind will be less in a small place where the users are all known to the librarian; and in a rural community the ceremony of application need be scarcely more than the signing of the name on a blank form, which, when filed, becomes part of the official list of users. In many libraries a second list is kept, the units in one being filed alphabetically and in the other chronologically—that is, by the serial numbers assigned to them as accepted. The chronological entry may be in a registration book. When the serial numbers are used for charging, the advantages of such a list are obvious.

A library is often asked, and sometimes required to report officially, about its “actual number of users.” This phrase requires definition. A line of some sort must be drawn between those who have permanently ceased to use the library and those who intend to use it again. A man who returned his book yesterday and who intends to take out another to-morrow is surely an “actual” or “present” user as truly as he who is now charged with a book. As it is impossible to ascertain when a former borrower intends to take out his next book, or whether he will carry out that intention, a time limit must be assigned, and this is necessarily arbitrary. Usually the time is as great as a year—that is, a person who drew out a book as recently as 364 days ago is still counted as an actual user, whereas if the last

book was charged 366 days ago his use is regarded as lapsed.

Instead of counting the actual borrowing of a book, however, as the sole evidence of use, it is customary to require renewal of the application at regular intervals—say one to three years—and to count all persons who hold cards as “actual” users of the library. When renewal is not made at the proper time, this is taken as evidence that the user intends to take out no more books. This is all very arbitrary, and the statistics of different libraries vary so much that they are hardly comparable. It is probably safe to assume that the number of books out at any one moment is roughly proportional to the number of present users, but so few libraries report on this that, here again, there is no basis for comparison.

Having been properly registered, the intending user receives an evidence of the fact—usually a card—and proceeds to select his book. At this point we find all lending libraries divided into two classes—“closed-shelf” and “open-shelf,” or “free-access” libraries. Practically all small and moderate-sized American libraries are now “open-shelf,” which means that the user is allowed to go personally to the shelves and select his book, whereas in a “closed-shelf” library he makes the selection by consulting a catalogue, fills out a “call slip,” and presents it at the desk to an attendant, who gets the book. The compromise by which the user, though not admitted to the shelves, has access to an “indicator,” which shows whether each volume is in or out, and also serves as a mechanism for charging it, is not used in the United States, though familiar in English public libraries. Open access, though a suspected and doubted experiment fifteen years ago, is now prac-

tically universal in America in all but large city libraries, and even in these it is usual to find an open-shelf room containing many thousands of volumes.

The advantage of open access to the user scarcely needs mention or analysis. The objections are two: first, increased opportunity for theft, and, second, increased handling, which wears out the books more quickly and disarranges them on the shelves, requiring rearrangement at more or less frequent intervals. The latter objection is entirely from the "ease-of-administration" standpoint, and may be passed over, in accordance with the general principle enunciated at the beginning of this chapter. So far as the former objection (increase of theft) is of this character, it, too, may be neglected; but it is urged that to give to the public opportunity for undetected theft is to demoralize it. That such opportunity exists is shown by the advantage that is taken of it. From a paper on the subject by Miss Isabel Ely Lord, librarian of the Pratt Institute Free Library, Brooklyn, N. Y., read at the 1908 conference of the American Library Association, it appears that losses in cities of more than 300,000 inhabitants ranges, in open-shelf libraries, from 7 books in every 10,000 circulated to 39 books for every 10,000 circulated. "The largest cities vary from 9 to 17 in every 10,000 circulated. In the closed-shelf libraries of this group the loss ranges from 1 to 9 volumes in every 10,000 circulated.

"In cities between 100,000 to 300,000 the open-shelf libraries lose from 8 to 42 in every 10,000. Denver, in its period of open shelves, lost 134 volumes to every 10,000— . . . so far as I know, the largest proportionate loss sustained by any library. In the closed-shelf libraries of the same group the loss ranges from 2 in

every 100,000, which is the proud record of Fall River, to 53 in every 10,000—a larger loss than that of any open-shelf library to-day, though not equaling that of Denver, as stated.

“ In the third group of cities, from 25,000 to 100,000, the open-shelf loss ranges from 6 to 48 in every 10,000. In the closed-shelf library of this group the loss, including that of the children’s room, is 5 in every 10,000.

“ In the last group of small communities (under 25,000) the loss ranges from Fairhaven’s statement that perhaps two books are definitely missing, but they expect to find them, through Gloversville’s loss of two to every 100,000 circulated up to nine in every 10,000.”

It will be seen that there are losses even in closed-shelf libraries, but far too many in the majority of both types.

It must be acknowledged that the point regarding increased opportunity given by free access for undetected theft, so far as it goes, is well taken. It is simply incumbent on the library authorities to decide whether the incitement to theft is so great as to outweigh the advantages of the plan to the public. This question, it would appear, has, in America at least, been generally decided in the negative; and in so deciding libraries have but followed the lead of other public institutions, such as parks, where abuse of free access to flowers and grass has not been deemed a sufficient reason for exclusion of the public. The losses must, of course, be watched closely by means of accurate inventories, taken at unusually brief intervals, if necessary, and the utmost effort must be made to detect and punish theft.

SPECIAL CARDS

Where books of a special size, or a particular class, are taken, these require special watching, and it may become necessary to place them on closed shelves, either temporarily or permanently.

Having selected his book or books, the user is met by another restriction. He is allowed to draw only a limited number of books at one time. The tendency in this regard, however, is now very marked in the direction of liberality, especially with non-fiction. It has long been common to allow two books at once, provided only one is a work of fiction. In libraries where current periodicals are circulated, one of these may be allowed in addition. The allowance of two books, known as the "two-book system," originated in an effort to stimulate the circulation of non-fiction, and previous to its general adoption, about 1895, restriction to a single book was quite customary. Where a work is in several volumes, many libraries allow these to be counted as one. The issue of special cards, with an extension of both the numerical and time limits, is frequently made. An increasing number of libraries are now dropping the special card and giving its privileges to the ordinary cardholder, sometimes even in the case of fiction. Another exception is now sometimes made in cases of persons leaving the city for vacation, who are allowed to draw a number of books at once and retain them not later than a specified date.

Having chosen his books, subject to these restrictions, the user next presents them at the desk to be charged. This is a more or less elaborate process, according to the uses intended to be served by it. A charging system may be so planned as to give information, at any time, regarding all or part of the following facts:

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(1) The titles of the books withdrawn on a given day, with the card holder who drew each.

(2) The books due on a given day, with the holder of each.

(3) The whereabouts of a specified book.

(4) The books in the possession of a specified holder, with the date on which each is due.

The number of books drawn in one day must be known if record of the circulation is to be kept day by day, as is usual. If the circulation is to be reported by classes, the daily number given out in each class must also be known. The person who drew each book must be known, so that he may be traced if he fails to return the book when due. The books in a given person's possession, with the dates of withdrawal, must be known by that person that he may return them when due. Knowledge of the whereabouts of a specified book is valuable in tracing that book, as at inventory. These items of information are obtainable in practically all charging systems, the only differences being that in some they require search, while in others they may be found at once, as in a dictionary or index. Charging systems now in general use in American public libraries are of four types:

(1) The ledger system.

(2) The one-card system.

(3) The two-card system.

(4) The Browne system.

The ledger system, still used in old or small institutions, is the simplest and oldest of systems. Its mechanism is almost nil, but it furnishes no ready answer to the questions specified above, except in case the circulation is extremely small, and then only after some search. In this system an account is opened with every user in

CHARGING SYSTEMS

an ordinary ledger, and as he takes out a book the title and the date of withdrawal are written under his name on the page assigned to him. When returned, the book is discharged by crossing off the entry and writing the date of return.

This system gives directly the number of books in each holder's possession, with date of lending. To obtain the books given out, or due, on a given day, or the holder of a specified book, it would be necessary to run through the entire ledger, and this method of charging is not used when these items are frequently required. Instead of charging under the user's name, the book title or the date may be used as a heading, but without gain in elasticity.

If each ledger page is replaced by a card, we have a simple one-card charging system. The cards may be filed by the date of withdrawal of the last book, in which case the titles withdrawn, or due, on a specified day are quickly accessible, without search. Abbreviations are usually employed—for the book, its accession number, or call number; for the user, his registration number. The full title of the book and the user's name and address may be found from these by reference to the proper lists. If all books are taken out for the same period, the arrangement of cards by date of withdrawal is at the same time an arrangement by the date due; if not, a rearrangement is necessary when the book becomes overdue. The package of cards, when first overdue, furnishes a list of persons to whom notices are to be sent. In a one-card system of this kind, if the cards are filed by date, the user, when he returns the book, must remember the date when the book was taken out; otherwise the record card can be found only by search. He must

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also know his registration number to avoid the necessity of looking it up in the list. If the cards are filed alphabetically by names or numerically by registration numbers, no act of memory is necessary, but the advantages over the ledger system are not great.

NOT TRANSFERABLE.

Good only until _____

No. _____

Name _____

Address _____

New York Public Library
CIRCULATION DEPARTMENT
MUHLBERG BRANCH
209 West 23rd Street

This Card must always be presented when taking out, renewing or returning a book.

The proper holder is in all cases responsible for books drawn by means of this Card, and if LOST one week must elapse, after notice has been given of its loss, before it can be replaced. Books may be renewed by postal card by giving number or name of book, number of card and date when book was taken out.

NOTICE.—Borrowers may take two books at the same time, provided that not more than one of these should be a work of fiction, and that two NEW books shall not be taken.

'N. B.—Prompt notice of change of residences must be given at the Library, and this card must be surrendered when the holder ceases to be a resident.

Good only until _____			
No. (M.) _____			
Name _____			
FICTION		Loaned	Returned
Loaned	Returned		
OTHER WORKS			

BORROWER'S CARD, NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY. (Both sides.)

In a two-card system one card (the "book card") bears the title of the book and is devoted to a record of the persons who took it out and the dates of withdrawal. The other bears the card-holder's name and has a record of the books taken out, with date of withdrawal of each and date of return, or at least a record of return. When the book is on the shelf the book card is kept in it, in a

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pocket provided for the purpose; when it is borrowed, after the proper entries have been made on both cards, the borrower's card is placed in the book pocket and carried away with the book by the borrower, while the book card is filed in the library, as described above. Thus both parties to the transaction have a record of it. The book may be discharged, on return, by crossing out

[illegible]

BORROWER'S CARD USED IN ST. LOUIS PUBLIC LIBRARY.

the record on the borrower's card, or the date of return may be entered on that card.

In the type of two-card system known as the "Newark" system from its use in the free library at Newark, N. J., an additional record of the date is made on a flap attached to the inside of the book (or on the pocket). This is to avoid the necessity of replacing the cards in the book at the time of discharging, which is often inadvisable in case of a rush. The cards may be replaced

later, at leisure, the assistant being aided by the record on the slip.

The Browne system, though not strictly a two-card system of charging, is a modification of such a system, and is regarded by many as an improvement. The borrower's card is replaced by a small pocket of heavy paper, bearing the borrower's name. The charging is performed by placing the book card in this pocket and filing both under the proper date. Members' pockets not in use are kept on file in the library, and each member is usually given an identification check. The loose pocket has been used in other systems, in conjunction with both book cards and members' cards, the charging being effected by simply placing the borrower's card and that of the book to be charged to him in the pocket together. The Browne system simply consolidates the pocket and the borrower's card. Pocket systems of this kind succeed best in small libraries, where they are most popular.

It will be noted that in all these systems of charging, one item of information remains difficult to obtain—namely, the whereabouts of a given book. This may always be found, but only by search, though the labor of searching is reduced by filing the cards by call numbers under the date. This item, however, is not desired so frequently as the others, and it is properly subordinated.

In charging the date, either the date of withdrawal or the date due may be used. The latter is simpler for the borrower, but if different classes of books may be held for different periods, as is often the case, a separate charging date is then required for each class, necessitating the use of several stamps and making confusion easily possible.

RENEWALS

The time for which books may be held is quite commonly two weeks, generally with the privilege of renewal for another two weeks; but if the book be new or in special demand, the period may be reduced to one week and the privilege of renewal withheld. The length of

[illegible]

SPECIAL BORROWER'S CARD, NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY.
(Both sides.)

time that the book may be held is, of course, clearly indicated on the book in some conspicuous place, generally by a stamp. In some libraries the period of borrowing may be as short as three days, as with current periodicals; and in some, special cards are issued to teachers or students on which books required for study may be held

for several months, unless recalled sooner in response to a demand.

In the case of books desired by a borrower, but already out, the library has two courses open to it. It may either require the borrower to take his chance of finding the book when it appears on the shelves after its return, or a waiting list of applicants for the book may be formed. The latter would seem the fairer plan, but many libraries object to it because the book, on its return, must be held for a day or more while the next person on the list is notified that it awaits him. If several persons in succession fail to respond, as may happen, the book thus lies unused for several days, while expectant readers are impatiently waiting for it. In spite of this objection the use of this "reserve system" is widespread, but in some libraries a certain number of duplicates are exempted from its rules and are placed on the shelves as soon as they are returned. The persons on the reserve list are commonly notified by postal card, for which it is customary to charge a fee, payable at the time of the reserve. This fee is wrongly regarded by some borrowers as a payment for the privilege of reserve, and the system is sometimes regarded as objectionable for this reason; but evidently the fee is no part of the system, which consists merely in the formation of a waiting list. In the case of persons who can call frequently at the library no postal notice is necessary, but where the borrower desires to be spared this trouble, it is proper that the library be put to no expense in sending the notification.

The privilege of reserve is sometimes incorrectly extended by some assistants to books actually on the shelves, which cannot be taken by some particular bor-

rower because he has out already as many books as the rules allow. The assistant removes the book from the shelf and holds it for the borrower until one of the books charged on his card is returned. This is evidently the same as allowing the borrower to have out more than the required number of books, and is indefensible.

Details of the reserve system differ widely in different libraries; in some, for instance, reserves are taken for new books not yet purchased; in some, again, the number of books that may be reserved for one person is limited, while in others there is no limit.

The penalty for keeping a book overtime is commonly a fine—generally one or two cents a day. This, like all fines, becomes often in effect a fee paid for a license to break the rules in this respect. Fines are often regarded by the users of public libraries, as they are by tourists in motor cars, as a necessary accompaniment of what they are doing. It is certainly not desirable that this view should prevail, but the alternative would appear to be the substitution of some other penalty, like suspension from library privileges, with an accompanying loss of revenue, which in a large library would be considerable. In the New York Public Library, for instance, with a circulation of over 10,000,000 in 1916, about \$40,000 was received in this way alone.

In a discussion on this subject following a paper read by the present writer at the Magnolia Conference of the American Library Association several different views of the library fine were developed. In opposition to the position taken here that it is, like other fines, a penalty for infraction of a rule, it was urged by some librarians that it is a compensation either for damage done to the individual who is deprived of the use of the

book or to the library itself, which is deprived of the opportunity to benefit the community by lending it. Some librarians even seemed inclined to sympathize with the view that it is simply a monetary satisfaction to the community for an extended use of the book, and that the damage inflicted is offset by the fact that the fine enables the library to purchase additional books.

The difficulty of keeping up with the popular demand for recent fiction, together with the feeling that public funds may not properly be used for this purpose, has led many libraries to adopt what has been called the "pay-duplicate system," or sometimes the "St. Louis plan," as it was first tried in the public library of that city. Besides the usual number of free duplicates in fiction, a collection of others is kept, for the use of which a fee is charged—either a few cents per day or so much per book. The money thus received is applied wholly to the maintenance and increase of the pay collection. The volumes, as the demand for them flags, are usually transferred to the free shelves. The objection has been made to this plan that it places a free public institution, supported by taxation, in the position of asking a fee for part of what it offers to the public. The advocates of the system point out that the public obtains free as much as it otherwise would, the pay duplicates being over and above the usual stock, that the collection is self-supporting, and that the free collection finally benefits thereby. On the other hand, public money, although it does not buy the books in the pay collection, does go toward their housing, care, and distribution. The question is largely one of sentiment, and many persons feel that a free public institution should be chary of commercial relations with its users. Public opinion

varies on the subject, and this should doubtless largely determine the adoption of such a system in a specified place. It has certainly been of great service in many cities, and is recommended in unqualified terms by many experienced librarians.

The part to be played by a library's public in regulating the selection of books by their demands, and the advisability of providing books likely to be of value to specified classes in the community, are treated elsewhere in this book. It may be said here, however, that the public library should and does welcome the freest interchange of aid between library and public, the former advising the public regarding its reading and the latter, in turn, suggesting to the former what books should be purchased.

A particular demand met in recent years is that of books in foreign languages. The demand for these comes from two classes of readers—those who do not speak the languages as their mother tongues, but read them solely for literary exercise or recreation, and those who read them as their mother literature. Languages read by the former class are chiefly German and French, and in a lesser degree Italian and Spanish. All these, of course, may also be read by the latter class, and in addition we may have Swedish and Dano-Norwegian, Russian, Polish and Bohemian, Hungarian, modern Greek, Lithuanian, Roumanian, and other tongues, all spoken and read by thousands of recent immigrants. The public library made no attempt to furnish books in such languages as these until about ten years ago, and when a few institutions began the task they were condemned on the ground that they were keeping the immigrant from becoming Americanized. This opinion is no longer held.

Books in their native tongues are read usually by persons too old to become Americanized in a linguistic sense; their children attend school, and soon talk and read chiefly in English. Besides this, the increasing provision of books in foreign languages, treating of American history, customs, laws, and ideals, makes these tongues vehicles of Americanization. Libraries are paying increasing attention to the immigrant and in some cases have gone so far as to organize classes for his instruction. Library introduction cards are given out by naturalization agents in some places.

A somewhat different problem is presented by the colored population. Here the barrier is social. In the Northern States there is theoretically no discrimination. Negroes are welcomed to the public library and are served like white users when they appear. In spite of this, however, the Negro in the North does not use the public library as much as would be expected. Negro assistants are rare and the proportion of colored card holders is small. It would seem that the race feels instinctively, whether with justice or not, that it is not wanted. So far, however, there has been no movement toward separate library accommodation for Negroes in the North, unless the establishment of a branch in a field house for colored people, in Kansas City, Mo., in 1914, is so considered.

In the South separate accommodation for the colored people, if they are to be accommodated at all, is, of course, a postulate. The problem has been met in three ways—by tacit understanding that the Negroes are not to use the libraries, by the provision of separate branch buildings especially for colored people and by separate accommodations in the same building

with the whites. The colored branch would seem the best solution, and it has worked excellently. It may ultimately be found desirable to adopt it in the North also, not on account of the feelings of the white population, but of the colored people themselves, who apparently will not use the ordinary libraries freely.

Fear has often been expressed lest the free circulation of books should serve to disseminate disease. Tests have shown that this is possible, and experiments on disinfection have not uniformly led to satisfactory results. While some experimenters report the entire destruction of disease germs between the leaves of a closed book by simple exposure, without opening, to formaldehyde gas, others assert that nothing short of live steam is effective. The use of this latter method necessitates removal of bindings—a process evidently unfitted for current library use. Notwithstanding this, effort has been made by some small libraries to disinfect all books between return and reissue, the usual process being to place them overnight in a tight receptacle with a generator of formaldehyde gas. This process, even if uniformly effective, would hardly be possible in libraries giving out over a thousand books daily. A very recent French process, combining a thorough dusting with the use of dry heat, may possibly be more practical. The larger institutions have limited their efforts, except in case of epidemics, to ascertaining, where possible, the existence of contagious disease in the homes of persons holding library books, and then dealing with such books as may seem best, either by disinfection or destruction. The local board of health will always advise in such cases, and sometimes assumes responsibility for the treatment of the book. In cities where an attempt is made to take

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a daily census of contagious diseases the library will, of course, benefit thereby. The facts that the origin of a case of contagious disease has rarely, if ever, been traced to a library book, and that the percentage of such cases among library assistants is less than among the population in general, indicate that there is little ground for alarm on this score.

The hours during which an American public library is open for use depend largely on the funds available for its support, and hence may vary from a few hours a week up to twelve hours or more daily. Sunday opening is becoming more common, but the library is seldom open full time on this day, and in some cases only the reading rooms are open, no books being circulated. Sunday opening has been widely advocated on the ground that the working man is unable to visit the library on week days; but experience has not shown that the Sunday use of public libraries is by working people. Usually the Sunday users are persons who might as well use the library on some other day, and, as Sunday opening entails additional expense, its value is certainly questionable, and its adoption in any particular locality depends on the peculiar conditions there, and especially on the state of public sentiment.

From the foregoing remarks on points of contact between library and public it will be seen that many of these are localized at a single point—the loan desk. This point may be regarded as the heart of a public circulating library—the place where the book and its user come together into the closest touch with its custodians. Hence the great importance of work at the loan desk. The somewhat mechanical employment of charging books, important as it may be, is often looked down upon

LOAN DESK

by young library assistants, who regard administrative or cataloguing work as of higher grade. No idea could be more mistaken. Every person employed in the library should be assigned to regular work at the charging desk, for it is here that the librarian can get into closest touch with the reading public.

In open-shelf libraries, however, and therefore in the majority of American public libraries, the book and its user do not meet for the first time at the loan desk. Selection is made, not at a catalogue, but from among the books themselves, and guidance here is often needed and valued. It is therefore customary in many libraries to assign certain members of the staff to "floor duty," where they are free to watch those engaged in the selection of books and to offer aid where it appears to be needed.

These two tasks—that of the desk assistant and the assistant on floor duty—are the most important in the library. To them all administrative, clerical, and special work is merely subsidiary, because a public library is a public distributor and these are the chief points of selection and distribution.

CHAPTER V

READING AND REFERENCE ROOMS

THE reading of books within a library building may be done in almost any part of that building, but the name "reading room" is generally applied to a room set apart for the reading of books not to be taken for home use, or for periodicals, or for both. A reference room is a reading room designed especially for the so-called "reference use" of books and periodicals, and may or may not be the same room as the general reading room.

A reading room not designed for reference use, and separate from the reference room, contains usually current newspapers and periodicals, generally nontechnical, and sometimes a small collection of books. Other books, when desired, are sent for from the stack or from the open circulation shelves.

A reference room contains usually such books as are intended purely for reference, such as dictionaries and cyclopedias, which are never read through from page to page, as well as others that may be used for reference if desired and that are often so used, such as histories, or scientific or art books in several volumes. With a large collection more books are added that are not intended purely for reference. Obviously there is no book that may not be used for "reference." A reader who consults one of Anthony Hope's stories to ascertain the

name of a character or to refresh his memory in regard to some incident, without reading it consecutively, is using it as a reference book. The reference collection is therefore supplemented by loans from the main stock or from other collections, as desired. The reference collection proper, or most of it, is now generally on open shelves, being obviously more usable thus. The reading rooms and reference rooms in a library may be combined in almost any conceivable way, or the lines between them may be drawn in any one of various places. There may, for instance, be a separate room for newspaper readers, or a separate department for periodicals, and separate reading rooms in connection with special collections, such as those on art, technology, or social science. In a very large library a huge reading room, containing many thousand books on open shelves, is generally connected with the stack by a mechanical carrier, so that the whole collection is at the disposal of the student. Much serious investigation is carried on in rooms of this kind, and the work done in reading and reference rooms varies from this all the way down to the hasty skimming of a newspaper. In the older libraries "alcove privileges" were granted to accredited students, with the use of a table and permission to write thereon. In modern buildings study rooms are often provided.

The possibility of using periodicals implies very full indexes. Some of these, such as Poole's Index and the Readers Guide, are now issued regularly, and the librarian supplements them with others that he makes himself, adapting them to his own special conditions and needs. Some of the most useful periodical lists are made coöperatively, often by the combined libraries of a city, thus representing its entire resources.

The simplest form of library reading room is doubtless one of those sometimes carried on in connection with a delivery station, and may be regarded as the first step toward the transformation of such a station into a branch. Instead of locating the delivery station in a store, a room with a permanent custodian is provided, and is furnished with newspapers, periodicals, and even sometimes with a collection of books, not to be taken away. These may or may not include a small reference collection. If any of the stock is allowed to circulate, the place becomes a true branch library, though a small one.

In a true branch, or a small library, occupying one room only, that room may have all the functions of a reading and reference room. In many ways this close combination is an ideal one. The use of periodicals is an important part of most reference work, and the current and bound copies must both be accessible. This means duplication or a close relation between reference room and periodical reading room. Again, it is desirable that a person using the reference books should have ready access also to the whole stock of books, which in a library as small as that of which we have been speaking means the books in the open-shelf circulation room. An arrangement whereby the reference reader sits in a room that contains, besides the reference books, the whole circulating stock, as well as the periodicals, including both current and bound numbers, is evidently most convenient. But with a very slight increase of size this combination becomes impossible. The first step is usually to remove either the reference readers or those who wish to read only newspapers and periodicals; in other words, to establish a separate periodical reading room or a separate reference room. In the former case the bound

WHAT IS "REFERENCE" ?

periodicals are sometimes left in the reference room, which necessitates the frequent sending of these to the reading room, and also the occasional sending of current issues from reading room to reference room, if duplicates cannot be afforded. If it is the reference room that is separated, the inconveniences multiply; for, besides those above enumerated, the reference reader is removed from the main stock of books, and he either neglects to make use of these or else they must be frequently sent to and fro. If both reading and reference uses are removed from the circulation room and the two are combined at some remote place, the trouble with the periodicals is eliminated, but the other remains, and in addition such bound volumes of periodicals as are desired for circulation must be duplicated. These difficulties are minimized when reading, reference and circulation rooms can be located at adjacent points, as they may be with a library of moderate size having all or most of its rooms on one floor. In a very large library they are reduced to a minimum in other ways, as by duplication where necessary, by the use of mechanical carriers for quickly delivering books from the stack in any part of the building, and so on.

Using "reference use" in its broadest sense, as signifying the use of books in the library building as opposed to home use through circulation, many of our older libraries are, or originally were, libraries for reference only. Such have now usually been supplemented by the establishment of separate public circulating libraries in the same city, or by the addition of circulation departments. The typical central building of a modern American public library has ample provision for both the reference and the home use of books, and generally

READING AND REFERENCE ROOMS

there is no definite division between the circulating and the reference stock. Certain books, to be sure, may for convenience be shelved in the reference room, and are mostly such as would not ordinarily be required for home use, but there are usually no books, adapted for circulation, that may not be sent to the homes of the users if desired. In the case of certain older libraries, however, that were established as reference collections and that have since taken on the work of circulating books for home use, a definite line of division must be drawn. In such libraries all books purchased from the income of certain funds must by the terms of the bequests by which the funds were originally acquired remain in the library building. After the establishment of a circulating department, especially if the principal circulation of books is carried on in a central building, where the chief reference collection is also located, the problem may be solved by purchasing from reference funds only such books as would properly be placed on the reference shelves. In some cases, however, great collections have been brought together before the library has begun to give out books for home use, and it may then contain many thousands of books suitable for circulation that may not leave the shelves except to be used within the building. This is, of course, an unfortunate situation, and there seems to be no way to remedy it.

The reference use of books may be roughly classified into three divisions: the looking up of definite points to answer questions that have arisen in any one of various ways; the combination, simplification, or systematization of previous material; and reading in connection with scientific investigation.

REFERENCE QUESTIONS

The first kind of use has so multiplied since the advent of the modern public library that to many librarians it practically exhausts the possibilities of a reference collection. A simple collection of reference books is one that will enable a person to answer such questions as "How high is Chimborazo?" "Where and how large is Hankow?" and "How many vibrations per second produce high C?" A more extensive collection would enable one to ascertain, for instance, the best method of dyeing flax purple, the structure of the language used in the Andaman Islands, and the relation of Mendeleef's classification of the elements to previous attempts in the same direction.

It cannot be denied that this use of the library as a sort of easily consulted universal cyclopedia is convenient and useful for the general public. The only thing about it that appears to call for protest is the increasing feeling on the part of the consulting public that it is the librarian's business to obtain the desired information from the books where it may be found and furnish it to the inquirer in convenient and proper form for whatever use he may desire to make of it. In many cases it is good policy for the reference librarian to do a favor of this kind, especially if it involves no particular labor. Thus, if the editor of a local newspaper telephones to the library to ascertain whether the books available there give the height of a mountain that does not appear in the office gazetteer, it is almost as easy and much more courteous to look up the figures and telephone them back than simply to inform the editor that the information is in the library and is at the disposal of anyone that may be sent to obtain it. Again, when a user of the library is in search of an elusive bit of infor-

mation he naturally seeks the help of the librarian, whose knowledge of the books is fresher and more comprehensive; and the librarian, if in doubt, will, of course, do considerable searching himself, while indicating to the inquirer other probable sources of the information desired. In such cases as these, and in others that may occur to the reader, it is quite legitimate for a user of the library to ask the reference librarian or his assistants to give personal aid in looking up a point, or even to do the entire work of searching for it. Many library users, however, go much further than this, and call upon library assistants to do work that is quite beyond the sphere of their duty—work that should be done by some one employed and paid by the searcher if he has not the time or the ability to perform it himself. Thus the librarian may be called upon to compile or copy family trees, to abstract long recipes or bits of narrative, or to prepare lists of dates or other numerical statistics. In extreme cases probably no librarian would hesitate to refuse, but the line between allowable and inadmissible work of this sort is drawn in different places at different libraries, and the persistent demands that are made on most reference libraries for ready-made answers to questions of this kind are having their effect in making their policy more and more liberal in this respect. Probably the answering of busy men's queries over the telephone is coming to be recognized as a perfectly legitimate part of the reference library's work. It is doubtless good policy for the library so to admit it, as this serves to influence public opinion and to establish its position in the community. Especially is it desirable for the library to go a little out of its way in this direction in a community whose reading has been largely trivial and in-

consequential, and where the institution has been regarded as chiefly of value to women and children.

The answering of special questions, calling for definite bits of information, is, however, neither the only nor the most important kind of work that may be done by the reference collection. A large collection of this sort is more or less rich in original sources—the narratives of travels, events, or scientific investigations by those who have experienced them or carried them on; letters, diaries, and documents; the proceedings of learned societies, and so on. These are not adapted, except in some cases, for continuous reading, and they are not consulted by the ordinary reader, or even known to him. The works that the ordinary reader does study or read, must, however, be prepared by their aid—text-books, treatises, histories, biographies, essays on popular science, history or description of mechanical invention, and so on. Sometimes these works may, in their turn, be used as sources; the data in a popular history or scientific treatise may be second or third hand, or even further removed from the original source, in which case the chances of inaccuracy are, of course, much increased. The writers who perform this valuable and necessary work of systematization, combination, and simplification are, unfortunately, not all competent. Indeed, one may go so far as to say that complete competence is the exception rather than the rule, unless the compilation covers the narrow ground of a contracted specialty with which the compiler may be thoroughly familiar. The case where the writer of one of these books is personally familiar with all that he describes or narrates is much rarer than most readers suppose. A popular treatise on astronomy by an eminent astronomer touches upon scores

of topics outside of that astronomer's specialty—topics of which he personally knows scarcely more than he does of zoölogy or botany. Even such a special book, for instance, as “The Sun,” by Prof. C. A. Young, who made a study of the subject extending over nearly a lifetime of investigation, describes the results of much research that did not exactly fall within his particular field. All that we can ask of such a compiler or popularizer is a sufficient knowledge of his subject to enable him to select and combine correctly the elements of the information that he desires to convey. When a compiler does not possess this knowledge, he is very apt to slip up. Much work of this sort is done for the daily papers, and the worker, being in a hurry, prefers to do his compiling at second hand, using popular works, cyclopedia articles, and essays in reviews, in which the original material has already undergone a preliminary sifting and arrangement. Often such work amounts to no more than a reuniting in different form of some one previous compilation, such as a cyclopedia article; and this may serve its purpose well enough.

It is common opinion that the expert compiler of a valuable treatise from first-hand sources must go far afield for his data and consume many years in putting them together. This may or may not be true; but it is undoubtedly a fact that a sufficient assemblage of data is easier to find than intelligence and ability in combining and discussing them. Almost any good library contains undigested material that, in the hands of the proper person, is capable of yielding results of value to the world. Freeman, the historian, astonished some admirers by telling them that he had, around the walls of his own study, all the volumes that he desired to consult in writing his

historical works, and that it was not necessary for him, as they had supposed, to visit constantly the great libraries in London, Paris, Vienna, and St. Petersburg. Many others had easy access to practically the same assemblage of books; yet there is only one Freeman.

When the value of careful, intelligent, expert work of this kind is more generally realized it will be done better than it is. Readers will insist upon more readable and more accurate work; publishers will cease to prize speed of execution above all else; writers will refuse to give to the public except of their best. The great mass of informational literature must be produced in this way, and the public library is its laboratory. Possibly the library, by broadening its collections and making them bear more and more upon this valuable function, instead of directing them wholly to the satisfaction of more or less desultory questioning, may hasten this happy day.

The third use of a reference library, as an aid in investigation, is somewhat closely related to the second. As investigation in this country is usually carried on in connection with university work and by university professors or students, the public library, especially in smaller towns, is not so often called upon to perform this function, except when we interpret the word "investigation" very widely.

The man who decides to investigate, we will say, the properties of a new alloy, or some recently discovered phenomena that may be due to a new form of radiation, or—to go beyond the limits of physical science—some events in the life of a Revolutionary general that have been imperfectly cleared up, will want to know, first of all, whether the subject has been investigated, or dis-

cussed, or even casually touched upon, by others. The literature that he finds may be so rich, so varied, and so complete that he will decide to give up his course of experiments altogether. Or, if he does not, their number and kind and the way in which they are carried on may be determined by what he discovers in the existing literature of the subject. An investigation entered upon hastily and without a thorough preliminary study of this kind is likely to be quite wasted, and the existing amount of duplicate inventions and discoveries and of learned discussions not so well done as they have been done already is sufficiently great to make the judicious grieve. It is the library alone that can furnish inventors, investigators, and students of all kinds the opportunity to forestall this kind of wasteful effort. And since investigation is more and more indulged in by the ordinary citizen, the public library should come as much as possible to his aid. It is estimated that many thousands of persons are now at work on dirigible balloons or aëroplanes. Doubtless a very large percentage of these are laboring with little preliminary study or knowledge, and will produce unworkable machines. Because of ignorant attempts of this kind, the United States Patent Office has been described by a great economist as the most melancholy place in the world—a museum of misdirected effort. If the public library does its duty, effort of this kind will be less in the future than in the past.

How shall the use of the reading and reference rooms be regulated? This is a more difficult question in a small library or in one of moderate size than in a large one. It is obviously well to place as little hindrance as may be in the way of the business man who runs in for a moment to glance at the dictionary or

cyclopedia, to look at the city directory or the gazetteer, or to consult a time-table. To stop such a man in order that he may sign his name to something or account for himself in any way is little less than an outrage. On the other hand, a man who desires that a special study room be reserved for him, with a considerable collection of valuable books at his disposal for some time, should evidently be required to establish not only his responsibility, but his standing as a student or as a writer, before such a privilege is granted him. Between these extremes lie many classes of so-called "reference" users. For the casual and hasty consulter of dictionaries, etc., a separate room, to which access is absolutely free, may be provided by the large libraries. The small libraries, however, often have reference books of all kinds in the same inclosure with the circulating collection, and sometimes also with a general reading room. What shall such libraries do? To admit the public without formality means more or less confusion between card holders and noncard holders. Some cut the Gordian knot by admitting none but card holders, thus requiring the busy consulter of a cyclopedia to go through precisely the same formalities as if he desired to draw books for home use for himself and his family. Others use small identification tickets. Where there is a separate reading room for newspapers and periodicals it is often possible to admit the public freely, although some libraries require readers to enter names and addresses in a book. In a reading room of this kind the library often has trouble in excluding the "tramp" element—rough and often dirty persons who come to lounge or rest, perhaps to sleep, rarely to read; and who often occupy seats to the exclusion of legitimate or

actual readers. Such trouble may be mitigated by the issue of tickets. In libraries where the newspaper reading room is somewhat inaccessible there is little annoyance of this kind. Thus in most of the branch libraries in New York, where the reading room generally occupies the third story, it is almost entirely absent. Persons willing to climb to the third story are those who are genuinely desirous of reading. The rooms were thus located, however, not for this reason, but because the cost of land made a three-story structure necessary and the reading room seemed to be the best department to put at the top. In many libraries care is taken to place this room, especially when restricted to newspapers alone, in a place as accessible as possible from the street, and no effort is made to keep out tramps. The result is usually an objectionable room, which is regarded as a sort of necessary evil. This evil seems to have reached much larger proportions abroad than in American public libraries, and English librarians are seriously considering the abolition of the newspaper room. Even in this country some libraries have ceased to subscribe to newspapers, on the ground that their presence attracts an undesirable element, and that their cheapness makes them accessible to almost everyone. It would seem a pity, however, to proceed to this extreme. The daily paper is certainly as legitimate and as useful a periodical publication as those issued weekly, monthly, or quarterly. Its presence does not attract undesirable readers so much as the position and ready accessibility of the room in which it is generally kept. Although most readers buy one or two papers every day, a comparison of half a dozen sheets in order to obtain, for instance, different accounts of the same event, is usually

MAPS

possible only in a reading room. It is difficult also to obtain files elsewhere. A large library will generally keep these very freely for a short time, say a year from issue, and will bind and shelve permanently as many as it may. Even the smallest library should keep a file of one local paper for as long a time as it can. In a system of branches it is often possible for each branch to file some one paper, and thus to make, through an inter-branch loan system, a very large number of files accessible to readers. In keeping files, preference may be given to papers, like the *New York Times*, which issue an annual index, although such an index is of almost as much value in searching other dailies as for the one to which it refers directly.

Among special collections that are looked for in almost all large and some small reference libraries are those of maps, prints, manuscripts, government documents, historical and genealogical material, and music.

Maps are useful in small libraries as well as large ones, and many of the best are to be found outside of atlases, which are usually related to the original surveys, somewhat as the compilations that we have been discussing above are related to original research. A large part of the original documents in the present case consist of topographic maps of different countries issued by their various governments. Unfortunately, these are not on the same scale, and there is no reliable standard map of the entire civilized world. Various civilized states have now agreed to combine in the issue of a map of the world on the uniform scale of 1 to 1,000,000 (about sixteen miles to the inch), and such a map is in process of preparation. Maps should be kept and indexed, even by small libraries that are not making special col-

lections. There are very many ways of keeping them in order. Maps that are to be consulted freely by the public may, of course, be hung upon the wall or may be mounted on rollers in sets. Others may be cut into uniform pieces and kept in shallow drawers. None should be folded, as the map will soon become illegible not only at the fold, but for some distance on either side. The "dissected" map can easily be put together for purposes of consultation, and if likely to be used a good deal, the separate pieces may be mounted on heavy paper or on linen.

Prints should be collected by all libraries. Their uses are treated at length in another chapter. Manuscripts may form a considerable and valuable part of a large public collection. In a small public library it is better to include only those of local interest, and then only when there is no local historical society. Local archives will naturally be cared for by the municipality. In case, however, that the librarian sees valuable material going to destruction under the care of either or both of such bodies, he may plausibly offer to act as their custodian, and may thereby save material of no little value. Manuscripts in faded ink may be photographed while photography is still able to preserve something of their contents. Brittle papers, especially when folded, may be spread out and mended with transparent paper, or even protected on one or both sides with fine silk gauze. Some may be preserved in scrapbooks with transparent leaves of tough onion-skin paper. In order to preserve the contents of some such documents permanently it is often necessary to put them into print. This may be done by the library itself, in its bulletin or in a separate series of publications. In a

small town library the local paper will often be glad to print material of this kind. Small libraries should also undertake to keep together much local historical and genealogical material, especially in places where there is no local historical society. This may well include files of all local publications, especially of the ephemeral sort not usually preserved, such as programs, broadsides, posters, etc., reports of charitable and other organizations, and everything likely to throw light on the town's current life. The large public library often contains such material in general, sometimes in considerable amounts, even in duplication of the collections of historical or genealogical societies in the same city. Such duplication is objectionable. Either the public library's collection should be turned over to the society on its consent to give the general public access to the whole, or the library should house and care for the entire collection, without transfer of ownership of the society's part of it.

Music, in the average public library, is probably of more value as part of the circulating than of the reference collection. In libraries where music is circulated the demand for it is great, and it would seem that the library may be able to play a great part in the popularization of good music. The circulation of pianola rolls and of phonograph records has also been proposed, with the same end in view, and has even been tried experimentally in one or two places. It would seem, at any rate, as if a large reference collection of music scores necessarily implied the presence in the library of a sound-proof room. Such a room should contain a piano, but users desiring to execute concerted pieces will naturally bring their instruments with them.

READING AND REFERENCE ROOMS

Government documents are a bugbear to many libraries, but the rules governing their use have been simplified of late years. Small institutions that had been made official depositaries were formerly obliged to receive and store tons of material that they could not use. At present libraries may designate the kind of material that they wish to receive. Possibly at some future time the depositary libraries will be limited to a few large institutions, named definitely by act of Congress; and all libraries that conform to certain specified regulations will be furnished free, on demand, with all documents of a specified kind and grade. The large library will, of course, receive, shelve, and index everything published by our own Government, and will include, besides, much that can be obtained from foreign governments. All this will form part of the reference collection. The library of moderate size, not a depositary, is inclined to disregard all government publications, which is a pity. The Government of the United States is the largest publisher in the world, and, like other publishers, it issues material of very different kinds—almost everything except fiction. It publishes readable biography, history, travel, science, and art. Unfortunately, this fact is concealed, in most cases, by the main title page, which states simply that the book is a report to some bureau chief, or is No. 4,114 of a series issued by a certain department. On a second title page we have the real title and the author's name; and it is this that should be used by the small library. Disregarding catalogue rules, such a library should conceal as faithfully as possible from its readers that a certain interesting book is a government document. The revelation of this damning fact would probably insure

it permanent immunity from use. It should be catalogued and shelved as if issued by any other publisher—a perfectly logical treatment, under these conditions—when it will doubtless be popular. Much of what has been said applies also to state and municipal documents, except that a small library will naturally make available more of the latter. Whether it keeps an entire set of all these will depend largely on whether the town or city does so and how available to the public these are. In general, libraries, large and small, are making more and more use of free material of all kinds—pamphlets, catalogues, folders and newspaper clippings. These are preserved in various ways. Perhaps the best is to use manila envelopes filed vertically, which makes it possible to keep together various forms of this miscellaneous material and obviates the necessity of entering it in the catalogue.

We have spoken above of objectionable duplications in historical and genealogical material. In towns where there is more than one library accessible to the public, these should reach some *modus vivendi* that will prevent duplication of any class of literature. This may usually be done by agreeing to specialize. For example, in Chicago such an agreement has been made by the Public Library, the John Crerar Library, and the Newberry Library. The Public Library specializes in general literature, the John Crerar in science, the Newberry in history, and so on. Economics is now the only field in which the two last-named libraries conflict. In pursuance of this policy, the Newberry Library has even transferred to the John Crerar its medical collection, which had reached a considerable size. Such action is evidently a long step toward a complete under-

READING AND REFERENCE ROOMS

standing between civic institutions; and it deserves the highest commendation.

In New York the consolidation of the large reference collections in the Astor and Lenox libraries before the opening of the new Public Library building made specialization necessary between these two. All the books on genealogy and on music were placed in the Lenox building, while the Astor was made a general reference collection. Where valuable public or semipublic collections on special subjects exist elsewhere in the city the Public Library does not purchase additions in these subjects. It thus leaves law to the Bar Association Library, medicine to that of the Academy of Medicine, engineering to the library of the united engineering societies, and architecture to Columbia University. Although such a policy scatters reference books rather widely, it is, as has been said, merely of the nature of a *modus vivendi*. Where consolidation is possible, it may be better to have but one institution; where it is not, it is certainly better that the existing institutions should divide the field of purchase and not waste their money in useless duplication.

Another way in which library solidarity is now promoted is through interlibrary loans. Of what benefit the free interchange of books among the members of a branch-library system may be, we shall see in another chapter. Such interchange is of even greater value between large reference libraries, and it is taking place with increasing frequency. Through its means scholars and investigators are often saved long journeys to distant parts of the country. If it should become still more common, it might make possible and desirable a division of the field of purchase, in certain directions,

INTERLIBRARY LOANS

among libraries in the same region, similar to that which is taking place among libraries in the same city. That this may be, however, we must have still cheaper transmission of books by post.

A great addition to the facilities offered the users of reference collections is to be found in the various types of photo-copying machines, which, with little expert labor, and a minimum of any kind, produce in a few minutes a photographic copy of a plate, a map, or a page of a book. The primary print is a negative—white or black or blue, but if a positive is desired it may be obtained by subjecting the print itself to a second copying process.

CHAPTER VI

THE LIBRARY AND THE CHILD

THE recognition of the need of a special attitude of the library toward children is one of the features of the "modern library idea," and one that has been most criticised by "old-fashioned" librarians. Some of its manifestations in American public libraries are ridiculed by our English critics as absurd and extravagant to the last degree. From the viewpoint that has been termed "old-fashioned" in this book—namely, the opinion that the facilities of a library are to be confined to those who care for them and who seek them voluntarily—there is, of course, little place for children in any library. Children would not think of seeking a library unless some pains were taken to tell them of it and to show them how they might derive pleasure and profit from it. It is impossible, however, to maintain the "old-fashioned" attitude when once it is admitted that a library is part of our educational plant. As well might we open the schools only to those who seek them voluntarily. This attitude is defensible in the higher, but scarcely in primary education. In the training of children, guidance and control are necessary, and if they are to benefit by our libraries, their steps must be directed toward the institution and their use of it must be closely overseen. This fact became recognized in some American public libraries sooner than others, but before

the year 1890 there seems to have been no systematic effort to provide library facilities especially for children. The necessity of these was realized in the Middle West before it became evident in the East, and the advent of the children's room, in its present form, was also greatly hastened by the adoption of the open-shelf system. In some of the older libraries the existence of books written especially for children was not even recognized; adults were supplied with history, science, and fiction, while the boy or girl who desired to read a children's story was forced to borrow or buy. And purchase, owing to the slimness of children's purses, too often meant the "dime novel."

Special effort to help the children appeared at first in at least four forms—the children's corner, the separate children's library, the children's reading room, and the children's room as at present administered. When books for children were first introduced into closed-shelf libraries no special method of treatment was necessary. Children made out their call slips like the adults and presented them at the same desk. But as soon as the shelves were thrown open to the public, matters assumed a somewhat different shape. Juvenile fiction being classified and shelved by itself, the children were somewhat segregated from the other users, but, as their nonfiction books were still shelved with those for adults, the juvenile users were more or less scattered about the shelves, where they interfered to some extent with adult users of the library. Complaints led to the natural expedient of removing all children's books from the adult shelves and shelving them near the juvenile fiction, making a children's corner, where the younger readers could be kept more or less by themselves. The next step was the pro-

vision of a separate room, or at least of a separate reading room, for children. In some cases the experiment of separate children's libraries was tried. The old Fifth Street branch of the Aguilar Free Library, in New York, was such a library, but it, like most others of its kind, was merged in a branch library of the ordinary type when the separation of the children from the adults in such a library became sufficiently marked. The establishment of separate children's libraries seems to have been due, in some cases, to unwillingness to operate an open-shelf children's room in the same building with a closed-shelf library for adults. Additional historical material regarding children's libraries will be found in Chapter II. It is interesting to see how the tendency to make of the children's department a practically separate library, with its own books, circulation, catalogues, statistics, and staff, has gradually but surely made itself felt. In very many cases the separation has not yet become completely effective. Even where the department is in a room of its own, books may be charged and discharged at the main desk, or they may be charged in the children's room and discharged at the main desk. Some children's rooms have yet no separate catalogue, or even no separate shelf list of their books; in some all the activities but registration are separate, and this is carried on at the main registration desk. In many rooms there is no separate staff, or at most a separate assistant in charge, the others being drafted from the main staff or taken in rotation from that staff.

It need not be implied that incomplete separation is necessarily objectionable; there may be good reasons for it. In a small building, especially that of a branch,

TYPES OF WORK

where the children occupy one end and the adults the other, with the charging desk between them, this one desk may be quite sufficient for all purposes; and there may also be justification for any other of the arrangements noted above. Yet the tendency, as has been said, is undoubtedly toward separate administration in all particulars, and especially in large libraries it is easy to carry it out completely.

Of course, the effort to remove the children to a place where they will cause no annoyance to the adults has been only one cause of their segregation, though it has been a potent one. In some cases it seemed the only alternative to loss of the entire adult circulation. The children drove out the grown people, as bad money drives out good—although perhaps the simile is inappropriate. Children usually do not mind noise and crowding, whereas adults are apt to object to both; hence the inevitable result.

Another potent factor has been closely connected with the recognition of the library's educational functions. As soon as the desirability of supervising children's reading becomes evident, it is seen at once that this cannot be done effectively without separation and the care of persons trained to do just this kind of work.

With separation has come more or less subdivision of activities. In general it may be said that, in a typical children's department of an American public library, some or all of the following kinds of work are carried on: (1) Controlled and guided circulation of books for home use; (2) use of books and periodicals as in an ordinary reading room; (3) reference use of books, largely in connection with school work; (4) work with very

young children, chiefly by means of picture books; (5) exhibitions, the display of illustrated bulletins, etc., always in connection with courses of reading; (6) story-telling to selected groups.

Taking up these activities one by one, we meet first with the necessity of a careful selection of books for the children's room. Possibly no subject connected with the administration of the modern library has given rise to more controversy than this. Opinions with regard to it have varied all the way from that of him who would include everything that children like to read, provided only its moral tendency is not bad, to that of him who would exclude all that possesses no literary value. Regarding the advisability of keeping out morally bad books there have, of course, been no two opinions, yet the line has been drawn in widely different places. Some would exclude, for instance, such books as "Tom Sawyer" and "Huckleberry Finn"; some object to favorite folk-tales that show a primitive callousness to human suffering or are told with what seems to be unnecessary coarseness; some object to all stories of war—and so on. In fact, were the selector of children's books to exclude all to which anyone has made objection, few titles would be left. A wise middle course has been followed in most cases, and we have some excellent lists to serve as a basis for selection. If these may be criticised, it is probably from the standpoint of those who regret that they are not more often made out by men. It is doubtless a pity that the masculine point of view has not oftener been available in this kind of selection. The tendency, however, has been constantly toward greater refinement, sanity, and wholesomeness, toward naturalness and simplicity of expression and away from sensa-

tionalism, false views of life, vulgarity, and abnormality of all sorts. This tendency is doubtless due in part to feminine influence, and if it has in some cases gone too far, no great harm is done. It must not be forgotten, however, that the library is only one channel through which the public obtains its reading matter. Librarians appear to think, at times, that their selection of books controls the public supply, whereas it may only drive the readers to other sources. If the exclusion of books of a given type from the children's room serves only to magnify the influence of books purchased or borrowed—more objectionable specimens of the same type—the exclusion, as a stroke of policy, evidently is not beyond criticism. The true method of control is to operate on the desires of the reader. If the child's taste may be so cultivated that he will prefer the good to the bad, the natural to the exaggerated, the wholesome to the sensational, the hoped-for result has been achieved. This is what is done by the properly administered children's room; the activities of the assistant who has such a room in charge are thus supplementary to those of the book selector. Neither can achieve her result without the other.

The number of books on the shelves of the room is very important. No circulation responds more quickly to an increase in the stock than that of the children's room, and in a large city where the number of users of such a room is great it may be difficult for the supply to keep up with the demand. In fact, the casual observer often makes the mistake of supposing that conditions are more satisfactory in a room where the shelves are well filled than in one where they are empty. The fact may be, and generally is, that in the former the

selection is not well adapted to its constituency, with a resulting small use; while in the latter there is a much larger, but well-selected stock, so that the circulation is great, and books are taken out again as soon as they come in, so that none remain on the shelves. It cannot be pretended that this is a satisfactory state of affairs. Discipline, the quality of the reading, the development of a real interest in books, all go on better with plenty of books on the shelves; but it is far preferable to the former.

With regard to methods of guiding the child's reading, of adapting the book to the child and the child to the book, personal contact and advice is, of course, the most effective. The room should have a separate catalogue, especially adapted for the use of the younger readers, as in the use of simplified subject headings; and the children should be taught its meaning and value, and encouraged to use it. Some effort should be made to ascertain the bent of mind and also the intellectual needs of the individual child. It has been charged that of books withdrawn from libraries for home use by children many are not read at all, and that only a small proportion of the remainder are read intelligently. There is more truth in this charge than most librarians care to admit, and the remedy lies in the employment of intelligent and effective assistance in the children's room. The disciplinary side of the work is also of great importance; it is not necessary to keep the room so quiet as to make it distasteful to the users, but quite as much distaste will result from a lack of orderly administration. Assistants who "are fond of children" are often the very worst persons to do work in a children's room. She whose influence is most felt, and felt in the best direc-

tion, is she whose authority, while gentle, is recognized and obeyed.

Home use, of course, is only one of the ways in which the books in a children's room are and should be used. In some places many children have no quiet place to read in their cramped homes, and it may be desirable to encourage these to read their books in the library. As in the adult reading room, certain periodicals are often kept for reading in the building and are not allowed to circulate. A children's reading room of this kind may, in a small library, be simply the space inclosed by the shelved walls; in a larger building it may be this or a separate space, in which case it may be administered as a room within or without the charging desk. If the former, the only means of access will be from the circulating space. Readers will carry thither freely books from the shelves, and will charge these only when they wish to take them home, in which case they must evidently pass the charging desk to get out. In the latter case, there will be no access from the circulating space, but only from the lobby outside. No books from the circulating shelves may be read therein without first being charged to the holder at the desk, although some books, not for home use, may be shelved in the reading room. Both these plans have their advantages. Some authorities on children's rooms object to the use of any reading space that is not within the charging desk, believing that its surveillance is difficult, but there are obvious advantages in providing a place that may be used by children whose books have already been charged, and such a space does not need surveillance, except for keeping order, or unless books are shelved in it. If there is a reference collection of any size for the children,

especially if it is used in connection with their school work, it will preferably be placed within the desk, although it may go in an outer space if an attendant is always present to care for it.

The fourth class of work listed above, namely, work with very young children, will also naturally be done inside the desk. Before children were recognized as a separate class to be dealt with by the library somewhat differently from adults, it was common for libraries to have an "age limit"—that is, cards were issued only to children above a specified age, usually ten to twelve years. The idea, of course, was that children below this age were not competent to take advantage of the facilities offered by the library. But with the introduction of children's rooms it was realized that no hard-and-fast line of this sort may be drawn with advantage. Many children of eight are able to read and profit by books, while many of thirteen are scarcely competent to do so. Besides this, if the library is to guide the child's reading, it is desirable that he should as early as possible fall into the habit of visiting the library, and should become accustomed to being governed somewhat by the librarian's advice in the choice of books. It is, of course, inexpedient to issue books for reading to children who cannot read, but if the library has good colored-picture books for circulation, very young children may properly hold cards. In the New York Public Library every children's room has a carefully chosen collection of colored-picture books for young children, which is not allowed to circulate. Sometimes these are shown to the children only at stated intervals. They are selected with care for the excellence of the illustrations, which are by artists of merit, such as Boutet de Monvel,

Walter Crane, and Howard Pyle. Besides this collection, there are usually also picture books for circulation among those too young to read.

Children very commonly bring with them to the library their younger brothers and sisters. Sometimes these have been intrusted to their care, and they cannot leave them if they would. To see these little ones sitting disconsolately on benches in the lobby, looking with wistful eyes at the treasures in which they are not allowed to share, is a sight that should soften the heart of any library trustee so obdurate as to keep the "age limit" on his list of rules and regulations. Brains have no definite age limit; neither should the library.

The display of pictures or illustrated objects in a children's room may take place in several different ways. It may be freely granted, in the first place, that a children's room is neither an art gallery nor a museum, and that it may not properly be turned into either. At the same time pictures and objects may both stimulate the interest of children in certain subjects and direct their attention in desired directions. It may be laid down as a fairly hard-and-fast rule that all such exhibitions are best when temporary. This applies even to wall pictures for purely decorative purposes, which are specially treated in another chapter. The Japanese have the right idea; too many pictures distract the mind, and the long continuance of any one of them in view dulls its effect.

Our old friend the picture bulletin first demands attention. It has been condemned of late because its manufacture takes valuable time better spent in other work. There is no doubt that much time has been spent uselessly on picture bulletins. Unless the maker is an artist, attempts to produce art effects are apt to result

somewhat sadly. The best bulletins are those that are simple and easily made. I have seen an exquisite bulletin on lace, traced out with white ink on a background of black Bristol board. It must have occupied many days in the making, but an equally good effect could have been produced by simply pasting cheap lace on the board at an expense of a few cents in money and of a few minutes of time. These bulletins should be what their name implies—lists of books, with illustrations intended to draw attention to the lists. The illustrations must be striking, so as to arrest the attention, but especial pains should be taken with the list itself and with the manner of its presentation. Bulletins are frequently seen whose lists are illegible, or ill-considered, or altogether absent, where great pains have been taken with the pictures.

It must not be thought that artistic bulletins in whose production much time has been consumed, with a good result, are to be condemned *per se*. Such are sometimes made by volunteers of artistic ability and are well worth using. But it is rarely worth while for them to be made in library hours by an assistant.

Both illustrated bulletins and collections of prints, whether to mark a particular event or anniversary or simply to stimulate general interest in some one line of reading, should be frequently replaced. In libraries having systems of branches such exhibitions may travel from branch to branch. The same is true of museum exhibits. Collections of random curiosities do little good. In small town libraries, in places where there is no local museum, permanent collections of local minerals, insects, or birds may be installed to advantage if there is room for them, but generally temporary shows

EXHIBITIONS

on some limited subject are best. These may be held in connection with exhibitions of pictures on the same subject, and may be emphasized with story hours. Such exhibitions may be gathered in various ways, or may be borrowed whole from industrial concerns or from the larger museums, where such exist in the same city as the library. Loan collections of this kind have been sent to various branches of the New York Public Library by the Museum of Natural History for several years. To illustrate the possibilities, special mention may be made of an Arctic exhibition lent by this institution to several branches. This consisted of all sorts of real Eskimo utensils and articles of dress, with two artistically stuffed polar-bear cubs, a beautiful fur dress, and the actual sledge made by Lieutenant Peary for his "snow baby," together with many Arctic photographs. At intervals Arctic stories (Northern exploration and Eskimo legends) were told to selected groups of children, and one of the assistants, dressed in the fur suit, served as an additional "exhibit." All this, it will be noted, comes pretty close to the kind of work that is characterized as absurd by our British friends. Yet the result was to arouse the greatest interest in the Arctic regions among the children in the neighborhood (mostly Irish and Italians), and the circulation of books on Arctic exploration became very large. Probably this result, which can scarcely fail to have a permanent educational effect in the localities where the exhibition was shown, could have been achieved in no other way.

It will be observed that the actual book was not obtruded in this case. It is quite true that such exhibitions have no reason for being unless they lead to the

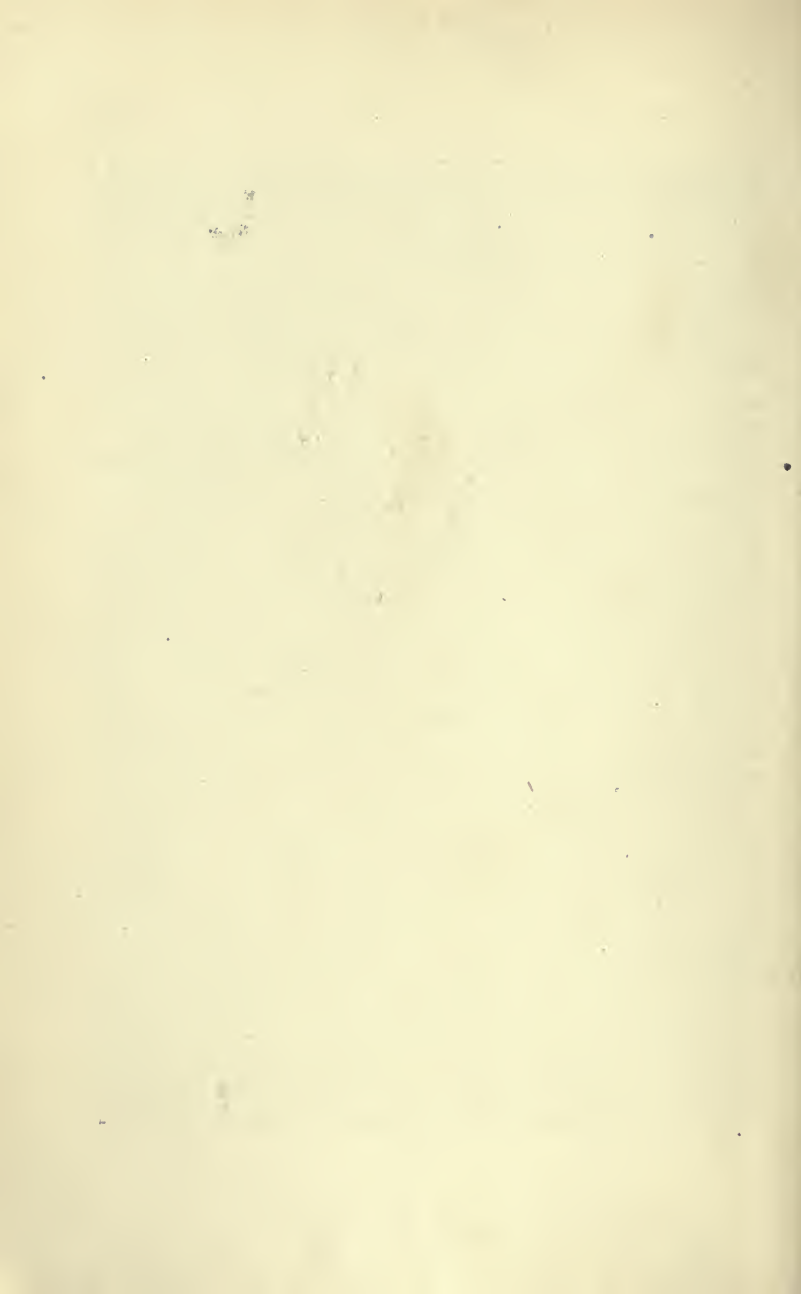
book; but they may lead to it more effectively if the connection is not forced. At lectures held by the Board of Education in New York City libraries the library in each case remains open for a half hour after the lecture, and the lecturer announces to his audience that books on the subject of the lecture may be obtained at its close. There can be no doubt that these lectures stimulate the circulation of books on their subjects and on others related to them; yet the immediate post-lecture circulation has been almost nil. Rarely are more than two or three volumes taken out in this way at any particular lecture, and sometimes weeks pass without the lending of a single one. The library should have a plentiful supply of books likely to be called for under the stimulus of an exhibition or a lecture; but to hand out the book directly is as apt to repel the spectator or hearer as it is to please or satisfy him.

This is true also of story-telling. The object of the story in a library is, of course, to stimulate interest in books, but it may do this in various ways without advertising any particular book or seeming to force it upon the reader. A good story acts by creating a desire, and when this effect has once been produced nothing more is necessary but a supply of books that will satisfy the desire. Often a series of stories does nothing more than to create an atmosphere in which it is easier to guide the children to good books. Often such a series stimulates interest in a subject, or, again, in a new author, serving as an introduction to the works of some one with whom the children have been hitherto unfamiliar.

The exact rôle of story-telling in a library has been the subject of much controversy; it is even considered



THE STORY HOUR, WEBSTER BRANCH, NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY.



STORY HOURS

by some authorities as a waste of time, if not entirely out of place. Doubtless stories, as they have been told in some libraries, merit these criticisms; yet there appears to be no doubt that in the hands of competent persons and under proper direction they may be an efficient aid in carrying on the activities of the modern children's room.

The selection of the group to which the story is to be told, and the choosing of the proper tales to be used with each group, are both of importance. The group should not be too large (twenty to forty), and its selection thus becomes a matter of necessity. To make attendance a reward of merit for good behavior in the library, the absence of fines, etc., is not good policy. Neither is the plan of "first come, first served." The best way is for the librarian to pick out those children that, in her opinion, will most appreciate the story to be told and benefit by it. Evidently the members of a group will be nearly of an age and of about the same school grade. It will often be satisfactory to leave the selection to a teacher, especially if the cycle of stories to be told has any relationship to the school work.

The success of a story hour depends more than anything else, of course, upon the personality and ability of the teller. Not everyone can tell a story, and belief in one's own gifts as a *raconteur*, either to adults or to children, is by no means an evidence of the possession of such gifts.

Certain objections to the provision of separate quarters for children in libraries are legitimate and deserve consideration. The assertion that the whole movement is abnormal and a "fad" can scarcely be substantiated by citation of some foolish or trivial things that

have been done in its name. We shall not mention this further, but go on to some of the real disadvantages of work with children as it is now carried on in American public libraries. First of all, anything that is done for the child, as a child, without explicit recognition of the fact that childhood is temporary and only a preparation for the permanent or adult stage requires very careful scrutiny. All who have dealt for years with children of the same age find it difficult to avoid thinking of children as a race apart. The ripple near the stone in the stream looks steady and permanent, though it is made up at every instant of different particles of water flowing swiftly past. Are we forgetting, in our children's rooms, that the child of to-day is to be the man or woman of to-morrow? Do not literature for children and exhibitions and stories for children tend to prevent instead of to facilitate their passage to the adult stage? This is a serious question; but to understand it and appreciate its seriousness is to answer it satisfactorily. Doubtless the growing child will derive more benefit from an open-shelf adult library than from a children's room containing nothing but books for the very young; but it is quite possible to include in the collection for children those adult books that are most desirable for them to read. Judicious recognition of the needs and desires of children who are passing out of childhood is a desideratum in the children's room, and the modern library, it is safe to say, is pretty uniformly taking this into account.

Again: Is there not too much supervision of the children in our libraries? Is it not better to leave the child to discover something for himself than always to point it out to him? Now, there are no intellectual joys

OBJECTIONS

equal to those of discovery. The boy or girl who stumbles on one of the world's masterpieces, without knowing what anyone else thinks or has thought about it, and reading it, admires and loves it, will have that book throughout life as a peculiar intellectual possession in a way that would have been impossible if some one had advised reading it and had described it as a masterpiece. Nay, the very fact that one is advised to read a book because one ought to do so is apt to arouse the same feeling of repulsion that caused the Athenian citizen to vote for the banishment of Aristides just because he had become so weary of hearing him always called "The Just." This, too, is a solid objection; but, like the other, it applies rather to ill-managed than to properly equipped rooms for children. In order to experience the joys of discovery it is not positively necessary that the discoverer should happen upon what he finds quite by accident. The friend who advises me to walk down a certain path, knowing that in an hour's time the glories of a sublime mountain view will burst suddenly upon me, has prepared for me a pleasure quite as exquisite as I should have experienced had I chosen my walk at haphazard. We may thus prepare literary surprises for our children; and we should do so in our libraries if we are not to deprive them of the sweetest of intellectual joys. The well-managed children's room, with plenty of books on its shelves, will give its users the opportunity of "browsing" and of making discoveries of just this kind.

Quite a different objection is sometimes heard from the teacher. The library, it is said, interferes with the work of the school by giving the child something besides his lesson to occupy his mind. Recreation, of course, is

THE LIBRARY AND THE CHILD

needed, but his recreation should be largely physical, while the library tempts the child to use his eyes in reading, and his mind in assimilating what he reads, at times when he should be playing outdoors. I have known a teacher to send an earnest request to a neighboring library to close its children's room at the noon hour for this reason.

: Now we have here a very cogent reason for close co-operation between library and school, but not one for discontinuing the use of the former by children who attend the latter. In the first place, children do need intellectual as well as physical recreation. These should be properly proportioned, but neither can be spared. For children of school age, the number of recreative books that may be withdrawn for reading in a given period may well be limited by the library, after consultation with teacher and parent; possibly also the length of time in which the school child may remain daily in the library building may be limited; but the idea that the proper use of a library will interfere in any way with the proper development of a child's mind through formal educative processes is not only an error, but a dangerous one.

Perhaps this is the point to introduce the idea, which will possibly be new to some, that "work in a children's room" and "work with children" are not necessarily the same thing. A large library does a considerable part of its work with children outside of the rooms that it provides for this purpose. It sends out books to the schools and it provides collections for deposit stations. All of the former and a normal proportion of the latter are used by children. Children also have access to most of the books that are carried home by adults, and doubt-

less read many of them. What we do in our children's rooms, therefore, does not represent the sum total of the library's "work with children." It does, however, include all that is done formally; and if the children's librarian does not lose sight of the two facts that the children have access to other library books than hers, and that many of them have access to books entirely outside of the library and apart from its influence, she will do her work with more insight and will accomplish better results.

Nothing, so far, has been said of the discipline of the room or of its methods; and it is just as well not to press this point. Discipline must, of course, be maintained, though it need not, and ought not, to be the discipline of the schoolroom. A certain amount of noise is inevitable, and is unobjectionable, provided it is "library noise"—that is, noise due to activity connected with the charging and discharging of books, the selection of books from the shelves, or even the occasional exchange of remarks and criticism—not the din of aimless rambling about or of desultory conversation on outside topics. The danger that adult readers may be annoyed by this "library noise" is a good argument for placing the children's room on a separate floor or, at any rate, for surrounding it with sound-proof partitions.

Probably the greatest aid to discipline in the library and to securing the proper care of the books at home is the instilling of a spirit of ownership and responsibility into the children. This may be done in numerous ways. One of the most effective is the plan of "self-registration," by which the children themselves write their names on the pages of the registry book, under a simply worded pledge to keep the rules of the library and take

care of its property. This pledge is read over aloud by each child before signing, and the little formality often has a wonderful effect. Similar results have been sought, and often attained, by the formation of so-called "library leagues," whose members sign a similar pledge and wear an appropriate badge. The formation of leagues, clubs, and societies among the children, however, needs careful supervision. Very successful boys' and girls' literary clubs have often been organized in connection with children's rooms, and have done much to arouse and sustain interest in good reading; but they need the sort of control that is effective rather than evident, and no librarian who has not both the ability and the time to exercise this sort of guidance should try the experiment.

As for the shape, position, and equipment of the children's room, these will, of course, vary with the size of the library, the conditions under which it is working, and the theory on which it is administered, as indicated in various preceding sections of this chapter. The shelving should be confined to the walls if possible; formality should be avoided and a homelike and cozy look cultivated. A fireplace is an effective aid in this direction. In a small room an ordinary flat-top desk may be sufficient for the charging and discharging of books; in a large room operated on the plan of complete separation the adult charging desk may be duplicated, with all its appliances, including those for registration. Where the children are numerous and inclined to be unruly, the space within the desk may be separated from the lobby without by glass partitions sufficiently high to prevent the handing over of books. In many rooms this precaution is unnecessary.

CHAPTER VII.

THE LIBRARY AND THE SCHOOL

IF the public library is an integral part of public education, its relations with the school must evidently be close. Too close an administrative connection, however, has not been beneficial to the library. In many towns the public library is a component part of the local educational system, under the jurisdiction of the Board of Education. In some places this plan seems to have worked well, but it has generally been found that when the control of a public library is vested in a body created originally for another purpose it is regarded as of secondary importance and its development is retarded. It is better that the library should have its own board of trustees, and that the two institutions should coöperate in the freest manner. Such mutual aid is, of course, founded on the fact that the educational work of both school and library is carried on largely by means of books. That of the school is formal, compulsory, and limited in time; that of the library is informal, voluntary, and practically unlimited. It is greatly to the advantage of the scholar, and of those informal processes of training that are going on constantly during life whether he wills it or not, that he should form the habit of consulting and using books outside of the school. When books are thought of merely as school implements their use is naturally abandoned when school days are over.

Every educational institution should, of course, have a library of its own, for its own purposes. Every primary and grammar class, as truly and properly as every great university, ought to have its collection of books. But if this collection be expanded to its widest possible limits, it will inevitably be found that duplication of the work of the public library is going on. Here arises the first necessity for an agreement between the two institutions regarding the limits of their respective spheres. Libraries have generally looked upon the plan adopted in the city of Buffalo, N. Y., as most satisfactory. Here school and class-room libraries are furnished by the Public Library, the work of the grade being considered in selection, but care being taken to include imaginative literature and other valuable and attractive books on subjects that the curriculum does not touch. The Board of Education furnishes sets of books, other than readers, for class-room reading, besides the ordinary free text books in reading. This makes the school a library deposit station or point of distribution, so far as its own scholars are concerned. In some cities this Buffalo plan has been modified or adopted only partially or temporarily; but as a proper division of labor between school and library it is probably unsurpassed.

Of course, the lending of collections of books or traveling libraries by library to school or class is only one of innumerable ways in which the library may give needed aid. In the New York Public Library a special department, under a supervisor of work with schools, has been organized to care for these other activities, and perhaps they may best be set forth by a description of the work of this particular department.

In the first place, the city is divided into districts for

the purposes of the work, each district containing one branch library and a number of schools, varying from one to twenty-three, according to the size and location of the region. In each library the school work is assigned to a special assistant, whose business it is to become personally acquainted with every teacher in the schools of her district. She visits these schools from time to time, and she is at the special disposal of teachers who visit the library, giving them such information and aid as they may require. To this "school assistant" the teachers are encouraged to look in all cases of dispute regarding library rules and whenever there is friction at a point of contact.

In every public school, by special permission of the Board of Education, and in many private and corporate schools, is placed a library bulletin board, which is used exclusively for posting library information. It directs teachers and scholars to the nearest branch library, which they are advised to use; states clearly the library rules, and defines the privileges offered to teachers and pupils, including the special card, on which an unlimited number of books for study may be drawn for six months. On it are posted from time to time special lists of books—either those sent out systematically from headquarters or those compiled by the school assistant for some particular class or teacher.

Assistants in the library, selected for their ability to address an audience, speak at intervals, both before groups of teachers and at the regular school assemblies, explaining at both the functions and facilities of the Public Library and its readiness to aid both teacher and pupil. To this end teachers are encouraged to submit lists of books for purchase, not only for their own

professional use, but supplementary reading for their classes. An adequate sum of money is expended annually for such purposes. Again, a specialty is made of pedagogical periodicals not only in English, but in foreign languages, a very full set of these being located at certain branches and partial sets at all the others. Teachers are encouraged, if they show willingness to do so, to take library books into their lectures or recitations and show them to the pupils as part of the exercise.

Teachers in the lower grades are asked to bring their classes into the nearest library at stated intervals, either for instruction on some subject, with the aid of books specially grouped to this end, or to see an exhibition of pictures or industrial objects, or, again, to be taught necessary things about the use of the library—the chief reference books and what may be learned from them, the classification and arrangement of volumes on the shelves, the value of the card catalogue, and so on.

At this writing (1917) the so-called “Gary plan,” providing for the alternation of classes between school, playground, shop and library is being experimented with in New York, and while it will doubtless require modifications, it may result in vital changes.

Children are allowed, and even urged, to prepare their lessons in the library, especially in parts of the city where their homes are not generally suited for study. A reference library of 50 to 800 volumes is installed in the children's room of each branch for this purpose. The presence of such a collection of books has a stimulating effect on the use of the library by children for study purposes, as is clearly shown by the comparative statistics.

A measure of coöperation, carried out with success in many places, is the collection and distribution of prints for school use. These are gathered from all possible sources, are sorted by subjects and filed in accessible portfolios, or in large envelopes, so that the teacher who desires a collection of pictures to illustrate a geography lesson on the Philippines, a talk on the turbine engine, or a recitation on the England of Elizabeth, has but to send to the public library.

In connection with school work, a model school collection of books is invaluable. Arrangement by grades greatly facilitates selection by teachers, and a collection of actual books is preferable to a mere catalogue, although graded lists may do good service. The books, of course, do not circulate.

The use of books in city playgrounds may be mentioned here, although these grounds are not always under the control of the school authorities. In many places the public library keeps a deposit collection in each playground and sends an assistant at intervals to give out the books and to tell stories. In 1916 St. Louis began to use a "book-wagon" for playgrounds.

Such a broad division of work as the educational has, of course, its points of contact with many other divisions, and these are treated differently in different libraries. Two especially overlap with it—the work of traveling libraries and that with children. In a small institution one department may well care for all three. Even in a large library, the school traveling libraries, or perhaps all of them, may be sent out under the care of the same officer who oversees work with schools; or, again, this work may be under the superintendence of the children's librarian.

A complaint often heard from teachers is that the excessive use of a public library by school children in term time interferes with their school duties. This complaint is often well founded, and it is met in many libraries, after a frank conference with the teachers on the needs of the situation, by limiting the use of the children's room, generally by a rule that in term time only two books, or perhaps one book, may be borrowed weekly. In some cases there has even been a demand that the children's room be closed at certain times; for instance, at the noon hour, when it is better for them to play in the open air than to read. The desirability of compliance with such a request seems doubtful.

In what has been said it has been generally assumed that the schools with which the public library is to coöperate are the public schools, and coöperation is thus simply an alliance of two public bodies working toward the same end. But the same aid may be extended to and received from private schools, whether they are systems under corporate management, like the schools of the Children's Aid Society in New York, or absolutely independent institutions. Privileges extended to teachers may even be given to teachers of languages or of music, for instance, who do not conduct schools, or even classes, but give only private lessons. It is hard to draw a line, and probably nothing is gained by so doing. It is only when private teachers desire to utilize library facilities in some way to advertise their classes, as is not infrequently done, that it becomes a public duty to refuse. Regarding the advertisement of educational enterprises, as by the display of posters or the distribution of cards in the library, a rule with which no one can find fault is that all such concerns as offer their courses free to the

public may properly be aided in this way, but that when a fee is charged, in whatever guise, no library publicity may be given, no matter how excellent the material nor how small the payment required, even if it be merely nominal. The line between "nothing" and "something" is easily drawn; there is less logical justification for locating it anywhere between two "somethings."

A class of library that has been or, at any rate, should be greatly modified by the rise and extension of the free public circulating collection is the Sunday-school library. Originally a laudable effort to provide fit reading matter for young people who could get it nowhere else, it became, in many cases, owing to misdirected zeal, lack of good taste, and skillful exploitation by the publishers of trivial or sentimental "goody-goody" books, a scorn and a byword. A "Sunday-school book" was, with most healthy-minded children, a thing to be avoided and with their elders an object of ridicule. Recent efforts at reform have taken very largely the shape of a substitution of good, wholesome reading, of no special religious cast, for the books above mentioned. Libraries thus reformed, however, are merely duplicating the work of the public circulating collection. In some cases clergymen or Sunday-school authorities, seeing this, have discontinued their libraries and directed the children to the nearest public library for their reading. Doubtless this is too radical a step. Other schools, retaining their own collections, have supplemented them by traveling libraries from a public institution. There seems to be no reason, however, why Sunday schools should not do as secular schools should do—namely, retain a small specialized collection for the use of teachers and pupils in the preparation of their lessons, not primarily

for circulation, and rely on the public library for all general and supplementary reading. The school would then maintain an attractive reading room fitted with biblical commentaries and expositories, versions in various languages for comparison by the older scholars, geographies of Bible lands and travels therein, encyclopedias and dictionaries of religion, and perhaps some general treatises on ethics and sociology, although possibly even these also should be left to the public library. In a small city various schools might combine to maintain a room of this kind in the public library building.

Closely connected with school work is the circulation of text-books from libraries. These are used by readers in at least three distinct ways: for general reading, as any other book might be used, especially text-books of history, literature, some branches of science, etc.; by teachers in the course of their professional duties, either to inform themselves of others' work and methods or to facilitate broader preparation for a particular recitation; and by scholars for purposes of study, direct or supplementary, in the ordinary way. There seems to be a general feeling that the wholesale distribution of text-books is something that the public library cannot undertake, and many libraries have practically excluded them from circulation. There seems, however, no objection to their use in certain specified ways. In the first place, any book that may be read continuously with pleasure and profit should be admitted wholly without reference to its character as a text-book. The school histories of John Fiske, Prof. Shaler's books on geology, and Young's or Newcomb's astronomies come under this head. So far as the needs of teachers are concerned, there should be a text-book collection for reference use,

containing practically everything embodying distinctly different facts or methods of presenting them, with a reasonable number of selected duplicates for circulation on special cards only. The third class of users—the students themselves—is the one of which librarians are apt to complain. It consists in part of students in colleges and other institutions, where pupils are expected to furnish their own books, who prefer to save expense by using those of the library; in part of public-school pupils whose text-books are provided free of charge, but who have lost or injured them, and who take this method of avoiding the consequences of their carelessness; in part also of persons studying by themselves, possibly to prepare for civil-service or other public examinations. So far as school or college pupils are concerned, whether they are expected to furnish their own books or not, it is surely not the business of the public library to do so. With the “free lances” the case is somewhat different. Their number is not so great as that of the others, and there is some reason why the public library, in its educational capacity, should give them some assistance in obtaining an education that they would not otherwise secure. Text-books for this purpose should be such as are required or approved by the authorities in charge of the examinations for which users of the library desire, in general, to prepare.

In libraries where loss from theft is large, text-books often form a considerable proportion of the volumes taken, and it may therefore be necessary to keep the text-book collection on closed shelves. In any case, borrowers of such books should be granted special cards, or some equivalent privilege, enabling them to keep the volumes as long as they are in use. Rather than to take

all this trouble, some libraries come to the pardonable conclusion that it is better to exclude text-books, as such, from circulation altogether.

Although attempts to coördinate the work of library and school have been widespread, and although they have been very successful along certain lines and in special localities, it cannot be said that the movement as a whole has yet completely attained its aim. It has doubtless partaken too much of the nature of an effort on the part of librarians to induce teachers to recognize them as coworkers and to undertake certain additional work in the way of coöperation. Teachers, as a body, have not been particularly enthusiastic and have manifested little desire to meet the libraries halfway. Not that there has not been much appreciative work done. The National Education Association has had for some years a library section, although an unsuccessful attempt to discontinue it was made in 1909; and the American Library Association has a committee on coöperation with that body. Efforts to hold the annual meetings of the two associations in the same spot in some one year have so far met with no success. Joint local meetings of teachers and librarians have frequently been held, and have been productive of stimulated interest and good feeling. It may be doubted, however, whether the fact that the ultimate object of coöperation is the betterment of public education has been kept clearly enough before the minds of the two parties. Teachers have gladly learned of the readiness of libraries to furnish special books for themselves and their pupils, to offer facilities for the preparation of lessons, and to avoid interference with school tasks. They have welcomed such aid with a pardonable feeling that it should

be accepted at the expense of as little added trouble and effort as possible. On the other hand, librarians anxious to extend the sphere and increase the usefulness of their new educational machinery, and seeing clearly how important an alliance with the schools might be to them, have made all possible bids for it, and have regarded privileges offered to teachers as so many inducements to them to look kindly on the work of the library and to assist it in any possible way. There has, unfortunately, been reason in the past, if not in the present, for librarians to fear that the influence of teachers would be exerted against them. About twenty years ago, for instance, the Superintendent of Schools in New York City positively forbade his teachers to receive books for classroom use from the city libraries. Happily there is little chance now that any school officer will go to such an extreme as this, but there is still too strong a feeling on the part of both teachers and librarians that coöperation is a game of give and take, and that it is legitimate to try to get as much and give as little as may be. We seldom meet with a full and free recognition of the fact that the object is the adequate education of the individual—a process beginning in infancy and lasting until death—and that such mutual aid as is possible between school and library should be directed intelligently and thoughtfully to this end, and only to this end. The courses in school and college should be laid out with the intent to fit scholars for the intelligent use of libraries during the years after they have left school; and, on the other hand, librarians should study to make the use of their collections by children before and during school years directly contributory to the best use of their school privileges. This is the exception; but it is an exception

that is met more and more frequently, and that may at some fortunate future period become the rule.

One educational rôle, somewhat neglected by the schools, the library seems eminently fitted to play—that of selector. A drawback to all school education is that the schools must treat their scholars in the mass, whereas each pupil separately differs from every other. The advantage of friction with one's fellows, while the educational process is going on, outweighs the disadvantage of this mass treatment, and it is little felt during the earlier stages of education. But as soon as an opportunity is given for divergence this takes place irregularly and unsystematically. Fitness for a given career may be the last thing that is considered in its selection; and even when the selector desires to consider it, he has no means of ascertaining whether or in what degree it exists. The student who gives up his formal education in grammar school may be eminently fitted for the university training that does little or no good to the man who gets it. Professions and occupations are chosen by accident; everywhere we see round pegs in square holes and the reverse. In brief, selection is no small part of training, and although complete and perfect adaptation is, of course, impossible, it would seem that our educational processes might tend more evidently toward it than they do.

Now the library, especially the open-shelf library, inviting the user to roam about from theology to sports and from history to steam engineering, is a potent aid to selection. A single day spent between the medical and the legal shelves may be enough to indicate to the library user that his tastes, hitherto unsuspected, lie in one direction rather than the other; and to spare the world a

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poor physician or a worse attorney. Habitual use of a well-selected library before and during school education will reveal aptitudes in various directions, and will enable the student, especially if he has good advisers, to control the amount and direction of his formal education with vastly more surety than otherwise. The modern effort to lay more stress on vocational training is thus reinforced and supplemented, in a very practical way, by the ordinary functions of the public library.

Another point of contact between library and school that is essentially recent, is the incorporation into the school curriculum of instruction in the use of libraries. This is often done in the library itself through the visits of classes, accompanied by their teachers. The teachers themselves are also being trained to give this instruction by means of library courses in normal schools.

CHAPTER VIII

TRAVELING LIBRARIES

TRAVELING libraries are simply collections of books sent to communities, associations, or individuals for circulation. They may be sent out by libraries to supplement their work, by a state to supply its rural districts, by some charitable association, or even by individuals. In a library that adopts this method of reaching those who cannot or will not use the ordinary sources of circulation, care is generally taken to see that the traveling collection is not used by anyone who could or would otherwise go to a branch library. Exceptions are collections on special subjects, sent to clubs or societies that desire them for study or discussion. Traveling libraries sent out by a state are usually managed by the state library commission, if there is one; by the State Librarian, as in Virginia; or sometimes by a special committee appointed for the purpose, as in Kansas. Traveling libraries sent out by associations are often of the home-library type, like those distributed in Boston by the Children's Aid Society. Occasionally a philanthropist, like State Senator Stout, of Wisconsin, has taken up the work at his own expense. It is much to be desired that work of this kind should be done systematically and without duplication; hence in a city the public library is the best institution to take charge of it. In some libraries a special stock of books, with a special force of trained assistants, is set

apart for this work alone. Thus in New York the Traveling Library Office of the Public Library uses a stock of 90,000 books and employs seventeen assistants. It circulated 800,000 volumes in the year 1916, through 900 collections, stationed at schools, public and private; at fire-engine houses, factories, stores, Sunday schools, in rural communities, summer camps, settlements, hospitals, and so on.

In making up collections of books to be thus sent there is choice of two methods. Either fixed collections may be formed and rigidly kept together, being numbered "Library 1," "Library 2," and so on, or the collections may be made up to order, there being no limit of number, either inferior or superior, and no collection, as a general thing, going to two places in the same form. The former, or fixed-library, plan is generally adopted where it would be impracticable to allow absolute freedom of choice, as in sending out libraries over a whole state. The latter, or elastic, plan is the best where it is practicable, and is generally adopted by public libraries where the territory covered is not too great for those who desire collections to visit the center of distribution, talk with those in charge, and personally aid in picking out such books as are wanted. In this latter, or "elastic," plan it is not intended, of course, to allow absolute freedom of choice. It is well to limit very strictly the amount of fiction circulated in this way, except in collections sent to rural communities, where the proportion may be about the same that would be put on the shelves of a branch library, say about thirty per cent, such a collection being in lieu of a branch library and used in the same way. Time may, of course, be saved by making up certain libraries in advance for those who have

neither the knowledge nor the desire to indicate a choice of special books, but who ask simply for "a few books on English history," "about fifty volumes of miscellaneous reading," "a library of trade literature," or the like. Still, however, if such persons are questioned somewhat closely, it will usually be possible to arrive at some conclusion regarding their real wants or needs—at any rate so far as the size of the collection is concerned. Fixed libraries are usually put up in standard sizes, containing about the same number of volumes. They are packed in cases so arranged that these may be used to display and keep the books, and are sometimes accompanied with printed lists. Elastic libraries may be of any desired size, the capacity of the lending stock alone furnishing a limit. In the New York Public Library the collections run from 10 to 600 volumes. The conditions of lending should be that some person shall be responsible for the books, and that an account of their use shall be kept and reported regularly in the manner required by the lending authorities. If the reports show that the collection is not sufficiently used, it should be withdrawn, no matter how small it may be, and placed where it will do better work. So long as it is well circulated, no matter how large it may be, there is no reason why those who are using it should not retain it, subject, of course, to recall every year or so for examination and repair. As it is desirable to place the books in a traveling collection where they will do the most good, the requirement of a monthly report is very necessary, but it is in most cases difficult to obtain regularly. In certain cases library assistants may be sent to take the record, or to assist in working it out, but to do this regularly would require too large a force. In most cases the

books are in charge of amateurs, who cannot be directed and controlled as if they were employees. If no account of circulation is desired, especially if the collections are of the fixed type, the accounts of the traveling libraries are easily kept. The libraries are charged by number to the persons or institutions that have them and are checked off as they return. With the elastic system, especially where reports of use or circulation are required, as they should be with this type of library, a more elaborate system of accounts is necessary, but even here it is sufficient to charge the individual books by retaining the cards, and to furnish separate cards on which to record the issues.

In rendering a report of the work done through traveling libraries some confusion may result. In reporting the use of an ordinary library it is possible to distinguish very clearly between the use of books in the library building and home use, and these are now usually given separately, although formerly many librarians lumped them together as "circulation"—a plan now generally condemned. But in the case of traveling collections the books go out twice—once from the library building or stock room and again from the place of deposit. It has therefore been considered proper by some institutions to report as "circulation," together with ordinary home use, every use of a traveling-library book, whether at the actual home of the user or in the place of deposit. Thus, if a collection of books were sent to a club, and read, one after another, by different members of the club, the same record would be made as if each had taken it home, on the ground that such use is certainly not in the library building. On the other hand, some libraries count as "home use" only such

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books as are actually taken from the place of deposit to the homes of the users. All books used in the place of deposit itself are reported with books read in the library building, the place of deposit being regarded as analogous to a branch library. In some other localities no record at all is made of the use of traveling libraries, the only figures regarded as reliable being the number of books sent out and the length of time during which they are used. This is the plan pursued with the New York State traveling libraries. If reports of use can be obtained with any degree of accuracy, the second method outlined above would seem the logical and proper one. To omit all statistics of use would appear like a confession of failure.

An important variety of the traveling library is the "home library," which is simply a small collection of books sent to an individual, generally for distribution among members of a group of neighbors and friends. As originally planned, such a library was a phase of neighborhood work with children in tenement-house districts. A library of, say, fifteen books is left in custody of some child, and about once a week a visitor meets the group at the custodian's house; exchanges the books, talks about them to the children, and engages in such other work as occurs to her. Evidently much depends here on the personality of the visitor. The work would seem, at first sight, well adapted to volunteers, but it is difficult to secure those whose discretion equals their zeal and who will work regularly for any length of time. Many institutions operating these libraries, accordingly, furnish their own visitors. One such may visit several groups in an afternoon, and may thus care for twenty to twenty-five libraries with weekly visits. In some

cases it is possible to omit the visits, or to make them only at every second or third meeting of the group. This is usually where the custodian of the books is an older boy or girl who is able to fulfill in some measure the duties of the visitor. Again, the uses of the home library may be assimilated to those of an ordinary traveling library, or even to a collection of books taken out on a special card for study. Thus, a group of children using an ordinary miscellaneous home library may, as they grow older, become practically a study club, particularly interested in some one subject, and preferring that their collection of books shall be increased in size and limited to that subject. Or, the group may dwindle, leaving only the leader, who has yet become so interested that it seems desirable to continue a small collection of books for his own use.

In all these cases there is danger, of course, that the use of a home library may interfere with that of the library proper, especially of a near-by branch. This is a misfortune, as the good that a child will be apt to receive from a well-equipped children's room, with a competent children's librarian, is incalculably greater than that obtained from the small collection, with its visitor calling perhaps every week or two. Where the child cannot visit a library, or where the home library can be made the means of leading a group of readers up to the use of a children's room, then, and then only, is it properly employed. There is danger, especially where this work is under a separate manager or in charge of a separate department, that zeal to make the work of that department as large as possible may outrun discretion in this respect. This is true, not only of home libraries, but of other traveling collections as well. Cases have

been known where members of a home-library group use a traveling library deposited at the school that they attend, and also hold cards at the nearest branch library. Here, of course, we have wasteful duplication of work.

And if such duplication may occur between different departments of the same institution, it is still more likely to take place between the library and some other body that is sending out home libraries or traveling collections in general. In this case, too, it is more difficult to stop the wasteful work. This clearly indicates the undesirability of doing any such work except in connection with a library. An exception may be made in favor of state traveling libraries, since these generally go to localities without other library privileges; yet this is not always the case. Instances have been known where the users of a state collection had access also to a town library, with the resulting waste of effort that has already been described.

A future lies before the traveling library as a useful adjunct of branch systems in cities having a very large territory to cover. In preparation for future expansion, many of our cities have annexed much contiguous territory in which the conditions are rural or semirural. Such annexation has been made the target of much cheap wit, but in most cases the rapid growth of the city has justified it. There must in all cases, however, be years in which the rural conditions will continue, and a sparsely scattered population must be cared for by the city public library. This population is often too remote to be able to use any existing branch library, and conditions that would warrant the establishment of new branches to supply them are not yet present. Under these circumstances the traveling library furnishes an



TRAVELING LIBRARY IN A FARMER'S HOME IN WISCONSIN.



RURAL FREE DELIVERY OF BOOKS FROM THE WASHINGTON COUNTY
LIBRARY, HAGERSTOWN, MD.

excellent way out of the difficulty. The only problem is the selection of a place of deposit and a proper custodian. A schoolhouse is a natural center, but it is not a good place of deposit for a collection intended for the entire community, unless arrangements can be made to keep the building open after hours and during vacations. Even then many of the adults in the place will inevitably regard the collection as intended for children alone, and thus fail to take advantage of it.

It often happens that the most enterprising person in the community, from the library standpoint, is the pastor of a church, who offers a home in his parish house for the collection. It may be that this is the best place for it, and that the community is such that all will use the books freely under these conditions. But such an offer requires careful preliminary study of the situation. Such a place of deposit may cause the library to be looked upon as denominational, and may help the one church where it is located without benefiting the community at large. In particular, Catholics will rarely use a collection of books in a Protestant church, nor would Jews be apt to go to a church building at all for such a purpose. In many cases a store, especially a drug store or a well-kept grocery, offers a solution. The proprietor is generally willing to give the books space on account of the resulting advertisement and because they attract people to his place. Sometimes he stipulates that he shall be allowed to announce the presence of the library in his press notices, and if this is properly done there can be no objection to it. It may be, however, that, although he is willing to house the books, he has no time to care for them and to give them out. In this case, this part of the work may be done by volunteers.

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This distribution of collections of books over such a tract of *rus in urbe* requires work not unlike that of an organizer in connection with a state library commission. Two extremes are difficult to deal with: the community that does not realize the need of a public collection of books, is suspicious of the library's motives and hesitates to coöperate in any way in establishing one or carrying it on, and the too-zealous community, which pushes the use of its collection chiefly to demonstrate to the library authorities its need of larger facilities—the desirability, for instance, of the place as a site for a branch library. The librarian in charge of the distribution of traveling collections over a region affected in all these different ways has need of ability and tact of a high order.

CHAPTER IX

THE LIBRARY FOR THE BUSINESS MAN AND THE MECHANIC

It has been charged that the public library is essentially a woman's institution; that it is used chiefly by women, and purchases chiefly those books that women like to read. Statistics to prove or disprove such an assertion as this are practically impossible to obtain. The card holders in a family are more often women than men, because the former have more leisure to make application and to draw books; but those who read these books may be the men of the family as well as the women. There is doubtless more or less justification in the charge, but the question must be approached in another way.

For our present purposes the reading of books may be divided into three classes—reading for recreation, reading for study, and reading for information apart from study. Recreational reading embraces almost all the use of fiction, with some of the other subdivisions of literature, and is indulged in more by women than by men. Reading for study is probably done about equally by men and women. Reading for information, apart from regular courses of study, when done by women is apt to be largely in history, biography, or travel. When done by men it may have direct bearing upon the reader's occupation, temporary or permanent; and as it

is this class of readers that the public library has been neglecting more or less, there is probably some basis for the charge that it has paid less attention to men than to women. More fairly stated, the American public library has not, until recently, realized that a large possible demand exists for reading bearing directly upon the daily occupations of its readers. And as the greater proportion of those having a regular wage-earning occupation are men, this lack has been felt more by men than by women. This is a case in which the makers of books have felt and responded to the demand much more quickly than have such distributors as public libraries. A considerable literature of the manufactures, of commerce, and of the various trades has been in existence for some time. It is not wholly systematic; for example, it is comparatively easy to gather a large collection of books on textile fibers and their manufacture into fabrics, while the works on hat-making, for instance, are limited to a very few titles. It is not easy to give reasons for differences like these; doubtless their causes lie in conditions peculiar to certain trades and manufactures and not easily ascertained or appreciated by outsiders.

It must not be supposed, however, that demand for this kind of reading originates always, or even generally, in a desire to familiarize oneself with the literature of a trade or occupation. In many cases the very existence of such a literature is unknown to the worker, or if he knows it he cares nothing about it. The use of such books is generally at first only the most limited sort of reference use. A dealer in nuts wants to know whether peanuts may not be grown profitably in a Northern state; a man who is thinking of moving to Colorado is

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anxious to obtain information of the industrial and commercial opportunities in that State; an engineer wants to find a remedy for a cylinder that is out of order; a boy desires practical directions to make an aëroplane or a gliding boat. The satisfaction of these desires from books directs attention to the fact that a literature exists on the subject in which the reader is interested, whether it be vocation or avocation, and induces him to dip somewhat more deeply into it.

Now, these demands existed long before there were books to satisfy them; in fact, technical and trade literature is largely an outgrowth of them. But it is only recently that a majority of the persons in whose minds these questions arise have known that there are books in which the answers may be found, and even now most of those who know of such books do not think of going to a public library for them. The trouble is that over the library and its public still hangs the idea, so hard to dissipate, that it is primarily the abode of pure literature and of scholarship in the older sense. One may, of course, obtain information in a library; but of what sort? In history, pure science, language, or art? Certainly. About cabinet-making, "ad"-writing, salesmanship, or plumbing? In nine cases out of ten the seeker for data on these subjects does not think of the public library in such a connection. The man who wants to know whether oil lamps were used in England in the time of Henry VIII, or to find the formula for air resistance to a falling body, or whether the Arabic language has a subjunctive mood, or the location of Da Vinci's "Last Supper," goes to the public library as if by instinct. He who wants to know how best to pack a piston, or some attractive ways of dressing a shop win-

dow, or how to box goods that are to be consigned to Ecuador, does not generally consult a library; he goes to some one who he thinks may have special knowledge on the subject and gets or tries to get his information by word of mouth. In other words, the people who need commercial and trade literature are much in the position, as regards this literature, of the general public before the invention of printing. If this is too strong a statement, it may at any rate be said that for them, so far as their special needs are concerned, the public library has had no existence.

The American public library is beginning to awake to this state of affairs, and is trying to better it in various ways: first, by purchasing, for its general stock, a greater proportion of commercial, trade, and technological books; secondly, by establishing, if the size and importance of the institution warrant it, a special commercial or technological collection, under the charge of an expert; thirdly, by endeavoring to let the persons to whom these books would appeal know of their presence in the library and of the readiness of the librarians to assist in their use and to add to their number when necessary. Besides this, there have sprung up in some large cities, largely as the result of the public library's failure to do its duty in this respect, special libraries along these or similar lines. In a recent investigation made at the Newark Public Library it was discovered that there are at least thirty-five different kinds of these special libraries, and an association has now been formed to further their interests. The independent existence of some of these libraries is quite logical, but in too many cases their work could be done as well or better by the nearest public library. Instances of such special libra-

ries are those of the Commercial Museum of Philadelphia, the Insurance Societies of New York, the Merchants' associations of New York and Boston, of the Public Service Commission, New York, of the Provident Association of St. Louis, of the firm of Stone & Webster, Boston, and so on. These libraries, though mostly open to the public, are not public libraries in the broad sense, and are mentioned here simply to show that if the public library fails to do its duty completely, some independent institution will arise to supplement its work.

Large libraries having special collections for the use of mechanics, handicraft men, and business men have found it desirable to employ a custodian familiar with the books and with the subjects that they discuss. Smaller libraries, of course, can have neither separate collections nor special expert assistants, but it has been suggested that the staff of such libraries includes a man able to talk to the users of books of this sort and to understand their needs and desires. The importance of sex is emphasized by some librarians in discussing this subject. Mr. A. L. Bailey, librarian of the Wilmington (Del.) Institute, gives it as his experience that workingmen will in general not ask questions of woman assistants, and that they sometimes even hesitate to enter a library where the assistants are all of this sex. This has been resented as a reflection on woman librarians, and others have stated that their experience does not accord with Mr. Bailey's; but it is very natural that a man who enters a library to find out something about carpentry, plumbing, or tinsmithing, and who is not accustomed to the use of collections of books, should desire to consult some one who has a slight acquaintance with these subjects. Now, women are not commonly carpen-

ters or plumbers; hence the would-be user of the library looks around for a man, and, seeing none, departs. The bearing of sex on the matter is indirect. It is interesting in this connection to note that the large libraries that have established technological departments have placed them in charge of men, generally graduates in technology or engineering.

In a review of the work of libraries with special classes of readers Mr. Harrison W. Craver, whose library (the Carnegie, of Pittsburgh) has been noteworthy among those possessing valuable and active technological departments, notes¹ that the special trial of the technology librarian is not the actual selection of his books, which may be chosen by the use of numerous good reviews and lists, but the speed with which his collection becomes uselessly out of date. In five to ten years his books no longer represent actual practice, and to avoid this constant replacement is necessary. Mr. Craver also warns librarians against the sort of deadlock that has been noted elsewhere in this volume, which is by no means confined to technological work. A library pleads that it is not necessary for it to purchase technical and trade books because there is absolutely no demand for them. But this lack of demand is itself due to knowledge that the books in question are not to be found in the library. As well might the inventor of the telephone have argued that because there was no antecedent demand for such a device, it would be foolish to try to introduce it.

In the technology department of the Providence Public Library, having a collection of about 11,000 volumes,

¹ *Library Journal*, 31, C. 72.

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a special effort is made to advertise the library's resources in this respect by notifying readers, on postals, of books likely to be of interest to them, by sending lists to trade schools, and by printing them in the local papers. Among those who use this industrial section of the library, as reported by the custodian, Miss Ethel Garvin, are apprentices and machinists in the large machine shops, workers in the cotton and woolen industries, and those interested in the manufacture and application of gasoline engines.

The idea, noted above, that American public libraries have catered to women rather than to men is presented forcibly in *The Independent* (June 15, 1905) by a writer who asserts that a library assistant would be shocked if a workman, with a soldering iron in hand, should come in and ask for a book. In some libraries doubtless this is so; yet Miss Garvin says: "In this library . . . the more workmen who come, the better. . . . A man came in his overalls to get a certain gilt lettering for sign painting, and, after eagerly searching . . . until he found the exact letters, he apologized, saying, 'I was so anxious to get this that I came here right from the shop.' Of course, he was at once made to understand that no apology was needed."

Miss Garvin justly adds that this feeling of indispensability is exactly what the library should wish to inspire among workers. And, as already noted, it is a case of the busy *versus* the idle reader, not of men against women. The library "for the business man" should be also for the business woman—not alone for the woman who is a wage earner, but for the wife and mother.

It is possible to conduct an applied-science department almost wholly on reference lines, as is done at

Pratt Institute Free Library, Brooklyn, N. Y., where the collection is intended not primarily for the trained worker, but rather for the student or the man of little experience. This library has made special effort to get information regarding its work before the labor unions.

It should be noted, finally, that much of the best technical and trade literature is to be found in current catalogues. They are advertising matter, to be sure, but generally in the legitimate and best sense—brief illustrated statements of fact instead of highly colored fiction, intended to deceive.

The most important type of special library is also the most recent—that intended to act as a bureau of information in connection with a state or city government, especially its legislative body. The earliest of these, still regarded as a model, is the Legislative Reference Library of Wisconsin, operated by the State Library Commission. Similar libraries in other states are branches of the State Library or controlled by separate boards. Municipal reference libraries, of similar scope, have been established as separate institutions by some cities and by others have been placed in charge of the public library. This latter course is the one recommended by the Municipal League, provided the actual headquarters of the library be in the City Hall. The stock of such a library contains few books but much pamphlet and clipping material, carefully indexed and supplemented by manuscript information gathered by the librarian, who is thus able to give at short notice data desired in connection with proposed legislation or executive action. A bill-drafting department is often a part of such a library, and the usefulness of the type is already great.

CHAPTER X

THE SELECTION OF BOOKS

IN selecting books for a public library, whether the original stock for a new collection or the current additions to an old one, due regard must be paid to the character of the community that it is to serve. Two factors must be considered—the community's desires and its needs. Of the former the community itself is sensible, and they are easily ascertained; of the latter it is often ignorant, and they can sometimes be found out only by skilled investigation. Neither factor may be dwelt on exclusively, to the neglect of the other. Thus, if the immediate demands of the community be disregarded as trivial or mistaken and the library be stocked wholly with books selected with a view to its improvement, then, even though this selection be skillfully made, the books may be let alone by the readers, and so fail to fulfill their functions. If, on the other hand, the selection be made wholly with regard to the community's present demands, the librarian may fall into the error of setting too low a standard. A middle course is best. The average taste of the users of a public library is not as high as it might be; this, however, is due, not to any debasing influence of the library, but to the fact that it attracts readers from classes whose taste needs improvement. The public school is teaching everyone to read; the public library is furnishing reading matter. Between them

the ratio of habitual readers to nonreaders is becoming increasingly large. Owing to these influences many public-library readers betray the symptoms of intellectual youth—they are fond of narrative; they like simple words and ideas clearly expressed and easily apprehended; their idea of humor is often somewhat primitive; they have more regard for the substance of a book than for its manner; they like, above all, plenty of action; realism with them is a secondary consideration. All these are the characteristics of youth; instead of frowning upon them, the librarian must be prepared to humor them, to select books that satisfy such desires and are at the same time good literature. Especially is this true of his choice of narrative literature. It is a matter of grief to many librarians that their libraries circulate so high a percentage of fiction. This varies from forty up to eighty, according to conditions; as a general thing, a library that circulates less than sixty per cent considers that it is doing fairly well. This high use of fiction, however, is due to several causes, most of which are in no way discreditable to the public library. In the first place, fiction is now the most readable form of narrative. This is not because it is fiction, but because its writers make a direct bid to entertain their readers and need not concern themselves with anything else. The writer of history, biography, or travel, on the other hand, is primarily concerned with the accuracy of his narrative; to write entertainingly is a secondary aim with him, and is rarely attained, especially in the view of the class of readers with whom we are now dealing. This is a fault not of the librarian, but of the author. There would seem to be no valid reason why true narrative should not be made as interesting as fictitious narrative; that it is

not so is sufficiently attested by the preference of the public for romance. The reader here does not care in the least whether what he reads about really happened or not; he is simply looking for entertainment.

In the second place, the classes of books borrowed from public libraries do not necessarily represent the total reading of those who use these institutions. Readers may, and do, buy books of their own and also borrow from their friends. It is probable that those who do this prefer to own the more solid portion of their reading, going to the public library for the lighter and more ephemeral books. Possibly this may partly account for the fact that better books are often circulated by public libraries in the poorer than in the well-to-do quarters of cities. In three branch libraries on the lower East Side of New York the fiction percentage of circulation is, respectively, 48, 51, and 60; whereas in three libraries on the upper West Side the corresponding figures are 69, 70, and 71. This is usually regarded as showing a greater desire for useful information on the part of the poorer classes, but it may well be due, perhaps in large part, to the consideration just advanced.

Again, the time actually occupied in reading serious books is much greater, proportionately, than the number of books read. Thus, a man may read one volume of history, science, or philosophy and several novels, and yet have spent less than half his time with the fiction. That a report of reading by days instead of by books might considerably reduce the fiction percentage is shown by an actual trial of this method in the New York Free Circulating Library in 1896, where a percentage of 30.2 in juvenile fiction, calculated from books circulated, fell to 23.2 when based on the length of time

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during which the same books were retained by their readers.

There is, however, one cause of large fiction percentages that may be laid directly at the door of the library, and that is its failure, in too many cases, to provide books for those who desire to read wholly for information about their daily occupations. The fact that such books are not provided causes many persons to regard the public library as an institution solely for women and children. Many librarians are now realizing their shortcomings in this regard, and the result of their efforts to provide trade literature and the like is set forth in another chapter. Probably, also, there has been a tendency to confuse students' use with reference use, and so to exclude from circulation a very large number of serious books that should go to the homes of the users instead of being kept in the library. This fault, also, the up-to-date librarian is striving to correct.

When all is said and done, however, a large part of the circulation of a public library will still be fiction, and so long as this is of good quality there is no reason for being ashamed of it. Fiction is the prevailing mode of literary expression to-day—the vehicle that a writer must use if he desires to convey his ideas to the maximum number of readers, whether he has to promulgate a social theory or some new thoughts on municipal administration. Until this vehicle is changed, it must be fully recognized by the public library.

Class percentages of circulation are very useful in telling the librarian of the wants or demands of his community. If this percentage, for a certain class, be compared with the percentage of books of the same class contained in the library, the result

will often tell him whether he is supplying a demand or failing to do so. For instance, if he is circulating ten per cent of history and has only six per cent on his shelves, his histories are overworked, and he needs more. To put the matter somewhat differently, suppose that in a library of 10,000 volumes, circulating 100,000 a year, there are 600 volumes of history, circulating 10,000 a year. The average circulation of each book in the library is 10; that of the history is $16\frac{2}{3}$. An abnormal circulation per book, either in the library as a whole or in some one class is often regarded as meritorious; state commissions sometimes call the library with the highest rate the "banner" library of the state. Such a circulation is indeed interesting; it is creditable to the users of the library, but not to the library itself, for it shows simply that the supply has not kept pace with the demand.

Who is to make selection of the books for a library? The ultimate authority generally rests with a committee of the trustees; sometimes with the board itself. But if the librarian knows his business, such action will be generally very largely a ratification of his suggestions, or at least a modification of them in greater or less degree, according to the amount of confidence placed in his judgment. Of course, no one person can be omniscient, and the librarian must rely largely on information and advice received from others in making his selections. The demands of the public he will learn from their requests at the desk, from the number and character of the reserves, and from such statistical studies as that suggested above. Their unrealized needs he must understand partly from personal knowledge of them and of their environment, partly from the sort of intuition that

goes far toward making a librarian of the first class. The available material he knows by a close study of current catalogues and lists of all kinds, and he evaluates it by comparison of reviews, by reports from readers, and from personal inspection. If he is in a place large enough to boast of a good bookseller, he may inspect many books on approval. Above all, he puts himself in touch with people who have special knowledge, each of some particular class of books—theology, medicine, science, sociology, history, or language. He refers to them titles or, better still, the books themselves for their opinions; and he encourages them to report titles in their special fields that they may meet in their own reading. It is usually not difficult to obtain the services of such experts gratis; the work that they do for the library is more than compensated by the opportunity that it affords to examine books that they might not otherwise see. The town is small indeed that does not contain at least a few persons of special knowledge who are available as library advisers in book selection. In the way of lists, every librarian should have the Publishers' Weekly, which gives all current American and many English books; the Publishers' Trade-list Annual or the United States Catalogue, for books in print; the Annual American Catalogue or the Cumulative Book Index, and the American Library Association book list of selected titles for small libraries, issued monthly. The Book Review Digest is also of great use. Libraries that import considerably should have at least the Publishers' Circular (weekly) and the English Catalogue (annual).

In the exercise of his duties in book selection it is unavoidable that the librarian should act in some degree as a censor of literature. It has been pointed out that

no library can buy every title that is published, and that we should discriminate by picking out what is best instead of by excluding what is bad. This may be granted; but there will still remain a large number of books that would certainly have been bought but for some error in statement, morals, or taste that excludes them. To recognize such errors and to decide whether they are sufficient to exclude an otherwise desirable book surely constitutes censorship. The exclusion of nonfiction is generally on the score of incorrect statement or bad treatment of the subject; morality does not enter into consideration, except, perhaps, in certain descriptive works. In fiction, on the other hand, immorality and impropriety are frequent reasons for exclusion. There are few novels published that should not be read from cover to cover by some competent judge before acceptance. The amount of labor incident to such an examination is considerable. The eccentricity of library readers, whether official or voluntary, has sometimes been such as to call for public comment, and librarians and book committees should exercise their best discretion in the selection of such persons.

The small proportion of money spent for books by public libraries is often commented upon by the press, and is sometimes a cause of complaint with boards of trustees themselves. Books being the library's stock in trade and the reason for its existence, it is assumed that the cost of housing and handling them should be comparatively small. On the contrary, it largely exceeds the annual cost of the books themselves. In the year 1913 libraries reporting to the United States Bureau of Education expended \$14,756,576, of which \$2,932,022, or less than one-fifth, was for books.

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The reasons for this are various. In the first place, it must be remembered that the cost, as stated, is that of housing and handling not alone the current purchases for the year, which are all that appear in a table such as that given above, but also all the rest of the stock of books, representing often the accumulations of years. Thus, in the case of a small library that has spent during the year \$4,000, of which \$1,000 was expended for a thousand books and the rest for maintenance, this residue of \$3,000 may have cared for and distributed not 1,000, but 10,000 volumes, in which case the "board bill" for each volume would be thirty cents a year. In case each book has gone out ten times during the year, the cost of each loan is only three cents. More generally, if all expenses be taken into account, this cost of circulation in American libraries rises to six, eight, or even ten cents an issue. It must be remembered that this cost of maintenance, to which objection is sometimes made, and regarding which American libraries especially are charged with extravagance, may be made large or small at will. If readers desire spacious and handsome buildings, frequent replacement and rebinding of books to keep the stock in good condition, brilliant light, proper heating and ventilation, skilled attendance, separate accommodation and care for children, and such auxiliaries as exhibitions and public lectures, they must pay the bill. The same is true of taxation for all kinds of public conveniences and improvements. If a town is to have good pavements, a plentiful supply of pure water, electric light, fine schools, and a competent fire and police service, its tax rate will be far higher than the rate in a place where these things are absent or of the second class. It is for the citizens to decide how much

they can afford. In the case of libraries, the tendency with us has been to pay for an increased number of facilities and for the best quality of everything; and the bill is paid probably with less grumbling than that for other municipal improvements. As Miss Burstall remarks in her recent book on American schools, we really believe in education and are willing to pay for it. When we grumble it is usually not at the price, but at our failure to get what we consider our money's worth.

Again, when expenses are cut down, it is usually the outlay for books that must suffer, for most of the other library expenses are either fixed or highly inflexible. Such are the upkeep of the building, its lighting and heating, insurance, the salaries of the minimum number of assistants necessary to care for and oversee the working space, etc. In the case of the library with an income of \$4,000, cited above, if the town found it necessary to reduce this to \$3,500, it is probable that the only way to meet this reduction would be by cutting the book appropriation in half. Unpopular as this step would prove, it would be preferred by the public to cutting the hours of opening, turning out part of the lights, or letting the building run down.

As has been noted above, the more or less frequent replacement of soiled and worn books is a considerable item of expense, and in this connection the purchase of duplicates, especially for circulation, must be considered. The librarian must always decide how much of his annual outlay for books is to be set aside for these purposes. In regard to the discarding of worn-out or soiled books, the widest disparity of custom prevails. Some libraries allow books to remain on the shelves in disgraceful condition—either badly soiled, or torn, or

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defaced; while others are so particular that they remove books in fairly good condition, merely for a smudge or two or a microscopic tear. This difference is sometimes, but not always, the result of inequality of income. In some libraries, where an attempt is made to keep the stock in as nearly perfect condition as possible, the best of the books removed from the shelves are utilized by sending them to prisons or to hospitals, or to other places where they may be allowed to remain until completely worn out.

When a book is thus removed, the propriety of its replacement should be at once considered. In a great majority of cases the decision can be made at once, so that the title, if the book is an only copy, may be removed at once from the catalogue or the volume may be reordered. It is often well to anticipate the removal of popular books by ordering duplicates in advance, so that the number on the shelves may be kept up. It is probable that librarians in too many cases replace books that have outlived their usefulness, either thoughtlessly and almost automatically or because they attach an exaggerated importance to the retention of titles already in the catalogue. Out-of-date books, essays, travels, and fiction of merely temporary value, superseded text-books and treatises, should not be replaced. The other extreme must, of course, be avoided—namely, the failure to replace good or standard works in order to spend more money on current publications of less value.

In regard to duplication, customs also vary widely. It is probably the fairest method to base it in some way on demand. For instance, a new copy may be purchased for every ten names (we will say) on the reserve list, or for less in case of nonfiction. Libraries that are able to

DUPLICATES

use the pay-duplicate system for fiction often find that this system solves the greater part of the problem for them. In case of branch systems, large duplication is often necessary. In the New York system of forty branches the number of volumes is about ten times the number of titles, indicating a corresponding average duplication. There may be, in the whole system, several hundred copies of one title. But, on the other hand, the operation of an interbranch loan system in such a network of libraries considerably reduces the number of copies in certain cases. Thus, if we consider forty libraries in forty separate towns, it would probably be necessary for each to purchase a copy of a recent expensive biography of a statesman or man of letters; whereas, if the forty were in one city, ten copies might be quite sufficient to supply the demand, these being freely exchanged among the branches. A similarly free inter-library loan system would evidently make possible great economies in book purchase among the libraries of a region. The possibility of such free exchange appears to be largely conditioned on the reduction of postage on library books.

If the purchase of duplicates has been properly proportioned to the demand, a library is not often left with unused duplicates on its hands. As the demand lessens, worn-out duplicates are not replaced, until finally the number of copies necessary to supply the permanent requirements of the library is reached, and these are, of course, replaced continually when necessary. In case of some books, the last copy may be allowed to drop out and the entry may be removed from the catalogues; with others, such as perennially popular fiction—"David Copperfield" or "Uncle Tom's Cabin," for instance—

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it may be necessary to keep hundreds of copies for lending in a large library or system of branches.

There are some books that may properly and profitably be duplicated far beyond whatever rule may have been adopted for general use in this regard. So many copies of these should be purchased that at least one is always on the shelves and that reserve lists for them are never necessary. Such are the popular standard poets—Longfellow, Tennyson, Browning—and much standard fiction—half a dozen of Dickens, as many of Scott; “Romola,” “Treasure Island,” and so on. Every library and every community will have its own list. There are always in great demand certain books of such merit that the public should not be compelled to wait for them.

Of course, there is often a sudden and unusual demand for books of this character, as when “Ivanhoe” or Goldsmith’s “Deserted Village” is assigned as the subject of a school composition. In a branch system this may be met by a traveling collection, to be placed wherever it may be needed at the moment.

CHAPTER XI

THE PURCHASE OF BOOKS

THE purchase of books by a library may be said to include everything done after the selection of the title to be added, until the book itself is delivered to those responsible for its preparation for the shelves. This includes operations incident to the ordering of the book and to its receipt. The ordering includes (1) the estimation of the price and the making of a proper memorandum thereof; (2) the sending of the order to the bookseller, with retention of a memorandum. The receipt includes (1) comparison of the actual book with the duplicate or memorandum of the order and (2) with the bill, making a check against the proper item; (3) entering in the book in pencil such data as may be necessary in accessioning it, such as the source and the price; (4) comparing the estimated price with the actual cost as shown by the bill. If there are branch libraries among which the books are distributed, these processes must be more complicated, as noted in the chapter on that subject.

Taking up these items one by one, the estimation and recording of the price previous to sending the order are necessary chiefly because a variable time is to elapse before the receipt of the bill—sometimes several weeks, or even months, in case of importation—and it is desirable to know just how far the library has gone toward

THE PURCHASE OF BOOKS

using up the appropriation for books, or some definite fund or part thereof. In sending the order to the bookseller, the retained memorandum, which is kept on file until its release by the arrival of the book, may be an exact duplicate of the order, or may be made in some other way. In ordering books it should be stipulated that there should be a bill for each box or package, that the items should be arranged alphabetically by authors, and that the package be not too large. This facilitates checking. Comparison of actual costs with those estimated before purchase need not be made book for book, but only weekly or monthly, in bulk, to avoid too great a discrepancy.

In these operations a slip may be used for each order, or a sheet for each set of orders, or a combination of the two. Slip or card systems have the advantage of easy arrangement and rearrangement and the disadvantage that a single slip may be easily mislaid or lost. A sample system may be operated somewhat as follows: Each separate title comes to the department or person charged with ordering the books, written on an order slip, which has blanks for author, title, publisher, source of purchase, price, and the various dates of ordering, receipt, delivery to shelves, etc., and also for the name of the person recommending the purchase, remarks, the book committee's stamp of approval, etc. After scrutinizing the slip to see that all necessary formalities have been observed, the order clerk estimates the probable cost and enters it in his memorandum book under the heading of the proper fund. It is better to place the list price on the slip, leaving it to the clerk to estimate the cost to the library from his knowledge of the condition of the market. Slips are then distributed by sources of purchase

Author		Branch		3		1	
NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY, 209 West 23rd Street.		NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY, 209 West 23rd Street.		NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY, 209 West 23rd Street.		NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY, 209 West 23rd Street.	
A book slip must be used if book is specially desired. Request only one copy on this slip. Refuse to "lose" all duplicate slips for a new title until the book is received.		A book slip must be used if book is specially desired. Request only one copy on this slip. Refuse to "lose" all duplicate slips for a new title until the book is received.		A book slip must be used if book is specially desired. Request only one copy on this slip. Refuse to "lose" all duplicate slips for a new title until the book is received.		A book slip must be used if book is specially desired. Request only one copy on this slip. Refuse to "lose" all duplicate slips for a new title until the book is received.	
Book recommended by		Book recommended by		Book recommended by		Book recommended by	
Remarks on new title		Remarks on new title		Remarks on new title		Remarks on new title	
Date		Date		Date		Date	
Price		Price		Price		Price	
Pub.		Pub.		Pub.		Pub.	
Approved		Approved		Approved		Approved	
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Author		Branch		2		1	
NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY, 209 West 23rd Street.		NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY, 209 West 23rd Street.		NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY, 209 West 23rd Street.		NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY, 209 West 23rd Street.	
A book slip must be used if book is specially desired. Request only one copy on this slip. Refuse to "lose" all duplicate slips for a new title until the book is received.		A book slip must be used if book is specially desired. Request only one copy on this slip. Refuse to "lose" all duplicate slips for a new title until the book is received.		A book slip must be used if book is specially desired. Request only one copy on this slip. Refuse to "lose" all duplicate slips for a new title until the book is received.		A book slip must be used if book is specially desired. Request only one copy on this slip. Refuse to "lose" all duplicate slips for a new title until the book is received.	
Book recommended by		Book recommended by		Book recommended by		Book recommended by	
Remarks on new title		Remarks on new title		Remarks on new title		Remarks on new title	
Date		Date		Date		Date	
Price		Price		Price		Price	
Pub.		Pub.		Pub.		Pub.	
Approved		Approved		Approved		Approved	
Order of Delivery		Order of Delivery		Order of Delivery		Order of Delivery	
Sig. of Lib.		Sig. of Lib.		Sig. of Lib.		Sig. of Lib.	

TRIPPLICATE BOOK-ORDER SLIP USED IN NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY. (Both sides.) No. 1, record slip; No. 2, bookseller's order; No. 3, request for L. C. card. (Slip folds in three sections and all are written on simultaneously with the use of carbons.)

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and arranged alphabetically under these. Those for each source are copied on a separate order blank, which is mailed to the bookseller's address, the slips being stamped with the proper date and held on file as memoranda of the order. On receipt of a package of books with bill, each book is compared with the latter, the corresponding item being checked, and with the order slip, which is stamped with the date of receipt and then transferred to a permanent alphabetical file, unless other dates are to be recorded upon it, such as those of cataloging and shelving, in which case it is sent on with the book. When comparison is being made with the bill, price and source are noted and penciled on a fly leaf of the book, to be erased after being used as data in accessioning.

Slips remaining in the temporary file represent short orders, and their value should evidently correspond to that of the books ordered less the totals of bills received. Instead of keeping the slips on file, they may be sent to the bookseller as his order, and a memorandum of each order, on sheets, may be filed; or, besides the temporary file of slips, a carbon or other copy of each order sheet may be kept; or the slips may be made in duplicate, one set being sent to the bookseller as his order and the other retained. Order slips have been combined with catalogue or shelf-list cards, the permanent file constituting the official catalogue or shelf list. As many as three slips may be written at once, the duplicate set being used as the basis of copy for a printed or mimeographed bulletin of additions or as orders by title for the printed catalogue cards issued by the Congressional Library. In any case, the permanent file left after the receipt of the book should constitute a complete dated

BOOKSELLERS

history of the order, enabling the librarian to ascertain at once, in case of need, who recommended a given book; who read it on approval, if it was so read; when its purchase was authorized, when it was ordered, when received, and so on. These data are as important to a small library as to a large one, and orders should be recorded methodically in this way, even if the librarian herself performs all the different operations indicated.

In case more than one copy of a book is ordered at a time, the same slip may serve for all, the number being entered with the title. This is objectionable only in case the order cannot be filled all at once, when the receipting of the slip involves trouble and there is risk of confusion. A separate slip may be made for each copy; but this involves much extra labor when the number of copies is considerable.

In some libraries bills are now so made out and treated that when checked and preserved they constitute an accession record, obviating the necessity of keeping a separate accession-book. This and the use of order cards in a catalogue are merely examples of various ways in which the labors of the book-order and the catalogue departments may be lessened by combination. Such a combination is in successful operation in some libraries.

As regards the source of purchase, there is much to be said in favor of a local bookseller, if he be a man of intelligence. Encouragement of such a man means the support of an expert to whom the librarian can turn for advice in many directions, and whose preservation may be worth some little additional expense. In case of large purchases, it is well, as a matter of policy, to divide the library order between at least two firms. The reward of

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better service from one may be an increased proportion of the business and will serve as a stimulant to the other dealer.

Secondhand books should be bought sparingly, if at all, for circulation. The reduction in price is seldom in proportion to the deterioration of the book, and such deterioration often does not appear on the surface. In case of a book not for circulation, to be little used, deterioration may not count; the book may last indefinitely, even if it has been weakened by use. But in case of a book for circulation, which is to be freely handled, the practical value to the library depends on the number of issues that it will stand; and if a secondhand book will stand only five issues instead of fifty, it is obviously worth to the library only one tenth the price of a new book, and would be dear even at quarter price.

This same consideration of the probable life of a book, as determined by the number of issues, must also determine whether the book is or is not to be placed in strong binding at the outset. So far as this is a binder's problem, it is treated in another chapter. So far as it involves the securing of the book in sheets, it is, however, a problem of purchase. It is not an easy matter to secure the sheets, unless the book is to be ordered in large quantities. Binders who make a business of binding up new books from the sheets for library use find it possible to make business arrangements with some publishers to be supplied with a sufficient number of the sheets for their customers, before the day of publication, so that the book may be bound and delivered to the library as soon as it could be purchased in publisher's covers. Other publishers, however, still refuse absolutely to sell sheets, alleging that it does not pay to pick

out and make up sets, and this necessitates buying their books in publishers' covers, tearing these off, and rebinding, with the result that the books are not so strong as if bound directly from sheets. It is to be hoped that ere long unsewed assemblages of sheets will be recognized articles of commerce in the American book trade, so that purchasers may bind to suit their taste and to fit the usage that the book is to receive.

Librarians are regarded by the agents for subscription books as fair game. Books sold in this way may be roughly divided into two classes—those that are too costly to be disposed of through the ordinary channels of trade, and those that are inferior in some way or priced higher than they ought to be, so that they cannot be sold in any way except through personal solicitation. In the first class are included expensive art books, editions de luxe, good sets in costly bindings, etc., most of which are not needed by any library, although some are adapted for the larger institutions. The only works in this class that may be considered by the smaller libraries are certain reference works, such as dictionaries and cyclopedias, that are not issued otherwise than by subscription. Even these may often be bought in condition as new from secondhand dealers, to whom they have been sent by purchasers persuaded against their will by the silver-tongued agent. The second class of subscription books includes innumerable "sets," formed by reprinting standard works that may be classed together in some way, often with a well-known name, as that of editor, and brief copyrighted introductions; worthless reprints of out-of-date reference books, with scanty up-to-date additions; and books of little value, compiled with a view to attracting a particular class of purchasers, as

those of some one religious denomination, veterans of the Civil War, or mechanics unfamiliar with their own trade literature. The sensible librarian steers clear of all these, and either adopts the plan of not purchasing books from agents at all, or of never deciding or making a promise, written or verbal, in the agent's presence. Librarians of small libraries are often led, by their desire to be up to date, to replace their editions of standard reference books by later ones on the advice of agents. This should never be done without thorough examination. The publishers of most good books of this kind cut the plates at intervals for brief additions and corrections, and impressions containing such changes are often represented by the agents as "new editions" or "the latest revision." On the other hand, a really new and enlarged edition or complete revision of such a work should always be purchased as soon as possible.

A New York club, through its library committee, received complaints from many members that its edition of the Encyclopedia Britannica was not up to date, and placed an order for a new set. The set owned by the club was in reality the latest edition, and the complainants had been misled by the condition of the binding. Fortunately the facts were discovered in time to prevent the expenditure of a considerable sum for a set of volumes that would have differed in no respect from the old ones except in their shiny clothing. This illustrates the importance of personal knowledge and of actual comparison of editions in all cases of this kind.

Auction sales of books are the source of many valuable purchases for large libraries and are well worth being watched by small ones. Book auctioneers in large

cities will send their catalogues regularly on application and bids may be sent in by mail. In case it is desired to bid regularly, however, it is well to put the matter into the hands of a trustworthy agent who will attend the sales personally and on whose judgment, in bidding, reliance may be placed.

In purchasing titles selected from lists, the librarian finds that many are out of print, either because the list is old or because the compiler has purposely included certain out-of-print books in his list, wishing to make it as complete as possible. The fact that books are out of print should always be noted in a list intended as a guide for purchase, but it is not generally so noted; and the result is much annoyance, both to librarians and to dealers. A report that a work is "O. P." (out of print), however, does not always mean the same thing. If received from a bookseller, it may mean simply that the American editions are exhausted, and it may still be very easy to obtain the book by importation. If given by a publisher, it usually means simply that his own edition is out of print; the book may be easily available in a dozen other forms. If all editions are really exhausted, it may be that, owing to lack of demand, the book will never be reprinted, or it may be that the work is simply unavailable temporarily, another edition being in preparation. Books temporarily or recently out of print, and even some that have been long in this condition, may be picked up at secondhand or found by advertising. This course seldom pays in a popular library for circulation, as the secondhand copy soon wears out and the search must be repeated, often at a brief interval.

Publishers sometimes report a book "out of stock."

This report differs little from "out of print," except that it may be taken to imply that there is an intention to reprint, or, at any rate, that there has been no decision not to do so; whereas "out of print" means that there is no present intention of issuing another impression.

Libraries often find that there is a steady demand for out-of-print books, and yet publishers report that they have no evidence that reprinting would pay. In some cases this is doubtless bad judgment on the part of the publisher, the library demand being an evidence that there would be a similar demand for the reprinted work if placed on sale. In other cases, however, there may be no such probability, the library demand being simply due to library habit. Be this as it may, efforts on the part of librarians to induce publishers to reprint such books have not been generally successful. In a few cases where reprints have been made the sale has been small, even among libraries that have reported a desire to see the books reissued. With some exceptions, therefore, the conclusion may be justified that the publishers know their own business best in this regard.

A New York bookseller, encouraged by the persistent library demand for a certain set of out-of-print books, made an arrangement with the London owners of the plates to print a small edition. The London publisher did as he agreed, and then arguing that the American order indicated a reviving American demand, issued an edition of his own, with which he proceeded at once to undersell the American dealer in his own market. This was financially profitable to libraries, but scarcely encouraging to others who might have been thinking of imitating this venture.

In purchasing standard books, especially those on which copyright has expired, there is generally wide choice among editions, and the librarian must select that best adapted to his purpose. He may rely for this on such partial lists as those issued by the American Library Association Committee on Book Buying and by Leroy Jeffers, of the New York Public Library, but such rapidly become out of date, and personal knowledge is necessary to make a judicious selection. What is needed is ordinarily strong paper, clear type of moderate size, a strong, black impression, sewing that will stand the strain of repeated handling, and a cover with stout joints. All this is very hard to find, as an original combination. The book, if it is to have the wear of circulation, will ordinarily have to be bound specially for that end, and all that the purchaser need look out for is paper that will stand such binding. These matters are considered in detail in the chapter on Binding. As regards type, much is used that is so small as to be absolutely unfit for a public library. Even where the type was originally legible, broken or worn letters often spoil the book, and there is no excuse for such a volume remaining on the market. As for illustrations, other things being equal, fiction is better without them. If there is no pictureless edition, one should be chosen where the pictures are not lightly fastened in with paste, ready to flutter out on the slightest provocation. In the case of a work of travel, full of interesting reproductions of original photographs, like many of the Arctic books of recent years, the edition that has these in their entirety should be sought. Some complete reprints of the text, especially English reprints of American books, or the reverse, leave out some or all of the pic-

tures. In case the photographs are of no particular interest, or have been inserted merely as "padding," the pictureless edition may be preferred here also.

In general, it may be said that the selection of proper editions for purchase has not received adequate attention among librarians. There is no royal road to success in it, and few guideposts by the way. Sometimes the lowest-priced book may be selected, regardless of its actual cheapness, reckoned from its cost per probable unit of issue. Sometimes the cost may be properly reckoned, but no account taken of faults, like unduly small type, that will render the book useless to most readers and injure the health of others; or, again, bad taste may be fostered by poor printing and worse pictures.

Book prices in the United States are greatly affected by the existence of the American Publishers' Association, a body whose object is to maintain the price set upon the book by its publisher. The Association prescribes that when a book is published "net" the price shall be maintained for one year, the discount to booksellers and others being limited during this period. For such books, now including all important new works, except some fiction, the discount to libraries is fixed at one tenth. Formerly the members of the Association bound themselves to refuse to do business with booksellers cutting prices, but such agreement having been pronounced illegal by the courts, the Association now simply "recommends" this action to its members. The Stevens-Ayres bill, introduced into Congress in 1916, legalized price-fixation of this kind, but in the latest draft, free libraries were excepted from its provisions.

It will be noted that the Association does not deter-

mine prices or give any opinion as to what is a fair price, but merely endeavors to maintain whatever price may have been set upon a book by its publisher, it being assumed that the public will protect itself against extortion by refusal to purchase. Previous to the formation of the Association list prices of books meant little or nothing. Everyone was able to obtain a discount on some pretext or other, and libraries could not infrequently count on forty, fifty, or even sixty per cent off. To meet these cuts it was necessary to place the nominal or list price at a high figure, and it was generally anticipated that the maintenance of list prices to the public, with reduced discounts to libraries, would be accompanied by a drop in the list price, so that the actual cost to the purchaser would not be much, if at all, increased. List prices, however, have been pretty well kept up, so that the "net" books, including most new current publications, cost libraries more than they formerly did. To justify this, publishers point to the increased cost of production and to the higher royalties demanded by successful authors. As regards non-net books, including most of the standard works of literature, their price has not been greatly increased, and libraries making large purchases may obtain thirty-six to forty per cent discount, or even a little more.

A free public library may, as a public educational institution, import dutiable books duty free. It may also, by provision of the Copyright Act, import classes of works whose entry into the country is prohibited except under certain restrictions, the only limitations being that pirated works may not be imported at all, and that books copyrighted both here and abroad may be brought in only one at a time. Effort has been made on various

occasions to prohibit the importation of foreign copyright editions of American copyright books, or at least of those originating in the United States, without permission of the American copyright owner; but this has been unsuccessful.

No definition of "pirated" books appears in the act. Such are generally understood to be all works produced without permission of the copyright owner; but in a strictly legal sense the term is probably limited to those so produced in violation of law. Thus, American copyright works reprinted in England or English copyright works reprinted in America before there was any international copyright agreement were generally called "piratical," although quite within the legal rights of the reprinter. On the other hand, an English unauthorized reprint of an English copyright book is clearly piratical; and yet, if the book has not secured American copyright, the law would probably not interfere with the importation of the reprint. Unauthorized reprints of books copyrighted in both countries, whether printed in one or the other country, are clearly forbidden introduction by the law. Books copyrighted in England, but not here, may, of course, be imported, as not subject to American copyright restriction. This fact and the permission, not yet withheld, to import, one at a time, the English editions of works copyrighted in both countries, together with the privilege of exemption from duty, often enable the librarian to save money and secure a better edition by purchasing abroad. This is not always the case, and a comparison of prices and editions is often necessary before deciding—an operation easier for a large library than a small one.

Large libraries often have their purchasing agents in

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the chief book centers abroad, but the easiest way to import is to order directly from an American importing bookseller, who will attend to all the necessary formalities and charge a flat price of so much per shilling, franc, or mark.

CHAPTER XII

CLASSIFICATION

CLASSIFICATION has two objects—to aid the librarian and to aid the public. As the latter is the ultimate object of all library schemes and appliances, perhaps it would be better to say that the objects are to aid the librarian in helping the public and to aid the public in helping themselves. Classification—the grouping of the titles in some systematic way—does not, of course, necessarily imply the marking of the books in accordance with the scheme, or any corresponding arrangement on the shelves; but it has come to include both these, in so far at least as the main groupings of the classification are concerned. In some respects a class may exist merely for cataloguing purposes. It is, indeed, impossible to place a book on the shelves in two classes, though it may logically belong to both; while it is, of course, easy to make as many entries for it as desired and to arrange these in as many groups as we wish. In order to realize the ways in which classification assists the reader, both directly and through the aid that it gives the librarian, let us suppose that the books are unclassified and arranged on the shelves as they are added to the stock—as a librarian would say, in the order of accession numbers. This method of arrangement was in vogue in small libraries not many years ago, and may still be seen in some places. Its disadvantages are not

obtrusive so long as the number of volumes is small—not more than two or three hundred, perhaps. A glance suffices to run over the titles, and a frequent user of the library has them pretty well in mind without looking at them. But when the library grows much beyond this the arrangement is soon felt to be unwieldy. Something is needed to enable the user to see at a glance the resources of the library in a particular line, or to be able, when he fails to find a book for which he is looking, to turn at once to others on the same subject. If the shelves are closed, it is not necessary for his direct aid that there be a classified shelf arrangement—a grouping of the catalogue cards, or of titles in a printed list, is all that he needs. When he has selected his book the assistant finds it for him mechanically. Even with closed shelves, however, classified shelf arrangement is of great aid to the assistant, whom it enables to answer questions regarding the available resources of the library with speed and ease. Especially is this the case in an American library. Our catalogues inform the reader what books are owned by the library, but not whether a particular book is in use or not. English libraries have indicators to show this, but we rely on the library assistant to give the information. The mere statement of this difficulty is in itself sufficient to show the advantages of free access to the shelves; and where this system prevails, as it now does, wholly or in part, in almost all American public libraries, a classified shelf arrangement is a necessity. Classification thus aids the open-shelf reader directly and the closed-shelf reader indirectly, through shelf arrangement, and both indirectly through the catalogue.

The chief basis of the classification in a general pub-

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lic library should, of course, be the subject of the book—the thing that attracts and interests most readers. Classification by authors may also be valuable; we occasionally hear complaints because all the books by a writer who is at once novelist, poet, and essayist are not found together on the shelves. This author grouping, however, may always be found in the catalogue. It is convenient in some classes, as literature, where form is important, to subclassify by form—essays, novels, poetry. Special libraries may, of course, classify on bases far different from these—the date of publication, for instance, as with incunabula; or the author's relationships, as when a club groups together books on all subjects by its own members. A public library is sometimes forced by circumstances beyond its control to adopt, in certain special cases, a very artificial basis of grouping—size, for instance, as when limited height of shelves relegates folios to a shelf by themselves, regardless of subject or author, or when the convenience of pocket editions from the book thief's standpoint makes it desirable for the library to group them together on closed shelves, or at least under close observation.

In spite of these deviations, however, "classification" among librarians generally means the grouping of books or their titles by subject, and involves not only a logical scheme of arrangement, but also some plan of notation by which a brief and intelligible mark on the book will indicate its class and its proper place on the shelves. It may be said here, in passing, that this notation, whatever it may be in theory, is rarely of direct practical aid to users of the library, except occasionally, in enabling them to replace books on the shelves properly in libraries where the public is allowed to do this.

ALL PLANS ARTIFICIAL

Despite directories and schemes on the fly leaves of printed catalogues, it is probably too much to expect the ordinary user of a library to attach significance to the notation of any system of classification. For the public there must be guides and subject headings in the catalogue, section signs and shelf labels on the shelves. It makes considerable difference to a reader whether a given book be placed in one or another class, but very little whether that book be marked with one or another combination of letters or numerals.

As regards the scheme of classification, in the first place it should be remembered that all grouping by classes is subjective rather than objective. Even if we group the red books and the yellow books together, respectively, it is first necessary that we should mentally abstract the color of the book from its other qualities. Then, when we have before us an assortment of graded orange tints connecting the two hues that we have chosen, it will be realized, in addition, that although it is absolutely necessary to draw a line somewhere between two classes, the location of that line must often be purely arbitrary. In fact, the classifiers of natural objects, who began their work before the classifiers of books, found out long ago the artificial character of all such schemes. They must take perforce the attitude of him who is about to cut up a beefsteak. It must be cut, and the pieces should be of convenient and regular size; but the precise spot at which the knife should enter the meat is of secondary consequence. We must doubtless, for our own convenience and in the interests of science, draw a line between animals and plants; and when we encounter various types of inferior organisms seeming to be both or neither, it is of little importance where,

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among these, we draw the line, provided only it is at an easily identifiable place and that it is always drawn by everyone in the same place. The same is true of books. These often cluster thickly about the central regions that separate class from class, and many of them may be placed as well on one side of the line as on the other. Any two expert classifiers, taken at random, will be apt to differ regarding the best location of such titles in any scheme of classification. Hence, even in libraries that have adopted the same system and that are supposed to be "classified alike," the class numbers of the same books will often be found to differ widely. There is as yet not only no standard system, but no standard of application to the individual books under any one system; nor can there be until all the books in all libraries are classified by one person. If all the libraries in the United States, for instance, should agree in the first place, upon some one plan of classification and, in the second place, upon acceptance of the class numbers assigned by the Library of Congress, whatever these might be, we should then have uniformity of classification, in our own country at least. Such uniformity has been gained in systems of branch libraries, where the class numbers for all are assigned at cataloguing headquarters. Such systems often include numerous formerly independent libraries, with either schemes of classification of their own or the same scheme applied in different ways. It has been necessary in such cases to reclassify the books, involving also radical alterations in catalogue and shelf list and the remarking of the books. There has never been any doubt of the advisability or utility of doing this work, and it would be equally useful, if it could be done, for all the libraries in a state or

TYPES OF SYSTEMS

in the whole country as for those in a single city. Nothing is wanting but authority, and probably this lack will never be made up. As a matter of fact, even when reclassification would be obviously advantageous, or is imperatively needed, the librarian of a large library shrinks from the task, involving as it does such a mass of detail and so many months of work. Many an inadequate and outgrown system is retained not because it is best, but because of the labor involved in changing it.

When books in libraries were first arranged in classes no one scheme was in general use, and almost every librarian formulated one of his own. Hence the older and larger American public libraries generally have their own systems of classification and notation. Of late years, owing to the publication of certain systems, with minute directions for their use, one or another of these is usually adopted in a new library, and some of the older and larger libraries are changing over to them, so that it has become possible, by giving outlines of these systems, to give an idea of the ways in which most of the public libraries of the United States group their books. Prof. Ernest C. Richardson, in his lectures on "Classification" (New York, 1901), divides systems of classification into five classes: the philosophical, or scientific, which deals with the order of the sciences or of things in the abstract; the pedagogic, constructed for educational purposes; the encyclopedic, similar to the preceding, but not so much in outline; the bibliographic, suited to the arrangement of book titles in a bibliography; and the bibliothetic, suited for the books on the shelves of a library. The first three he calls theoretic, the last two practical. Bibliographic classification, however, is more flexible than bibliothetic in not having to take account of

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the size, shape, and material of actual books, as the latter is obliged to do. It is evidently only in bibliothetic classifications that we are interested here.

In a useful scheme of classification the books must be arranged in classes or subclasses according to principles somewhat such as follow: The arrangement must be (1) logical—that is, books about similar things must be grouped together; (2) geographical—that is, books belonging in some way to the same part of the world should go together; (3) chronological, both by subjects and books—that is, books on the same historical period and also books issued at the same time should be grouped; (4) alphabetical—that is, books whose authors' names begin with the same letter go together; and (5) linguistic—that is, by languages.

It is obvious that only one of these arrangements can be the primary one, and that no two can occupy the same order of importance. For instance, the primary division cannot at the same time be logical and alphabetical, for the former would group all chemistries together, while the latter would require the books on this subject to be separated and grouped each with the books on other subjects whose authors' names begin with the same letter. Nor can it be at the same time logical and linguistic, for the former would put together histories in the English, French, and German languages, while the latter would segregate all French books, whether history, science, or fiction. We must then determine a primary principle of classification, then a secondary one, according to which we may divide the classes formed according to the primary principle; then a tertiary, for dividing the subclasses so formed, and so on. The order of these principles is not the same in all systems or in all libra-

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ries, and it may be necessary to depart from them in the same arrangement. The logical arrangement is the most natural and common primary arrangement in a public library. In many libraries, however, the linguistic arrangement precedes—that is, the German, French, Russian, or Roumanian books are kept by themselves—a preferable arrangement where these books are intended to satisfy the wants of native readers of those tongues. The geographical arrangement is important for some purposes, but is never made the primary one in a public library. The same may be said of both the chronological arrangements. The chronological arrangement by books is recognized occasionally as a primary one by public libraries when they place recent works on a separate shelf, thus practically dividing the whole collection into two classes primarily—recent and nonrecent books. The alphabetic arrangement is, of course, very important in its place, and the general public is usually pleased by making it as prominent as possible. Some libraries formerly recognized it as primary—that is, arranged all their books on the shelves alphabetically by authors' names, just as author cards are arranged in a catalogue. The New York State Library was once so arranged, but no good modern library adopts such a plan, although it might still be the best for a very small collection, say of three or four hundred books. The order in which the principles stated above are used for book classification in most American public libraries is, as given by Professor Richardson, as follows: (1) Logical, (2) geographical, (3) chronological by subjects, (4) alphabetical, (5) linguistic, (6) chronological by books. This means the division of the books first into subject groups, history by itself, science by itself, and so on; the division of these

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groups (where possible or desirable) by countries (thus, French history would always be kept together, possibly also the geology of France); the splitting up of these subdivisions by the periods or epochs referred to (thus, the books on the French Revolution would be kept apart from those on the Second Empire); alphabetical arrangement by authors under these subdivisions; the segregation of foreign translations from the original works under the same author; and finally the statement of the year of publication.

It must not be thought that this order is universal, or that it is ever adhered to rigidly throughout any whole system. In some cases one or more of the principles cannot be applied at all; for instance, although we may have books on the geology of France or Germany, we cannot have them on the chemistry of these countries separately, since chemical facts and laws are the same everywhere; thus the geographical principle cannot be applied uniformly to all the sciences, unless "French chemistry" be taken to mean chemistry as taught or formulated by French chemists. Again, there may be a difference of opinion among artists as to whether the geographical or the chronological principle should be allowed to take precedence in classifying art books; in other words, whether all books on French art should be grouped together and subdivided by periods, or whether the art of the Renaissance, for instance, should be grouped together and then subdivided by countries.

Fortunately, though questions such as these cause sleepless nights and heartburnings among classifiers, they do not affect the general public greatly, and as the object of all classification is to make the books of a library more usable, we may say that they are not of primary

importance. Among public libraries in general, uniformity is more desirable than the adoption of any one particular system or order of principles; and among special libraries the needs of each will naturally dictate changes in any standard scheme that might be adopted.

Every classification, no matter in what way the above-stated principles are carried out, must have, as already stated, what is called a notation—that is, a shorthand system for denoting the various classes and subclasses—for use in marking the books and also their titles in catalogues, for charging them on the user's card, etc. The notation on each book should tell one who is familiar with it almost exactly what the book is—that is, to what classes and subclasses it belongs. The mnemonic element is thus of considerable importance, and some systems have adopted as a basis the initial letters of the names of classes. Obviously symbols should be used that are connected with some recognized notion of sequence, which means practically that either numbers or letters of the alphabet should be employed. Many systems use both. A more complex notation may be valuable in a learned than in a popular library. As has already been said, the notation in a public free-access library is for the use of the library assistants rather than that of the public. The number of subclasses in any class is limited by the number of symbols in the sequence. There can thus be no more than ten with a numerical notation, while there may be as many as twenty-eight in an alphabetic notation. These numbers might be increased by the addition of arbitrary signs or combinations. The practical application of this will be seen a little farther along when we come to speak of specific systems.

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What constitutes a good arrangement for book classification? According to Professor Richardson, it should be (1) natural, (2) minutely detailed, (3) with a notation providing for indefinite subdivision, (4) provided with an adequate index, and (5) in general use. It will be noted that many of these requisites depend on the labor that has been expended in devising and elaborating the system and its notation rather than on the inherent merits of the arrangement. The two systems most in use in this country are precisely those that have been thus elaborated at the expense of years of painstaking labor on the part of their inventors; and the greater attention to details of classification, that is admittedly a characteristic of American popular libraries, as compared with those in England, is an outcome of the greater amount of labor that has been expended here on the details of specific systems.

The two systems of classification most in use in American public libraries, especially those of medium size and those whose collections have been recently formed, are the Decimal of Melvil Dewey and the Expansive of Charles A. Cutter. These, in fact, are the only existing systems that are in any way rounded and complete. For practical use it is not sufficient to indicate the principles on which a system of classification is based and the manner in which its notation is formed; the different classes and subclasses must actually be named, arranged, and notated, and this requires in itself a bulky volume. In special libraries, where the books are largely in some one class or subclass, further subdivision, with an expanded notation, is often necessary.

It would be a difficult and invidious task to compare the two systems named above. The Decimal system is

still more complete than the Expansive, is more fully indexed, and is in wider use. The Expansive is perhaps more logical at certain points and, as it uses a predominant alphabetic notation, admits of a much larger number of coördinate classes or subclasses.

A decimal classification, as its name implies, divides the whole field of literature into ten classes, each of these into ten subclasses, and so on. Its notation, therefore, is simply the ordinary notation of arithmetic, consisting of whole numbers and decimal fractions. It may not at first be obvious why fractions are needed at all. This is because a figure in a definite place—the hundreds, for instance—must always stand for a definite class, and if we were to attempt to denote indefinite subdivision simply by annexing other figures, the place of the primary class would be altered and its signification changed or rendered meaningless. The same object, of course, could be obtained by using a higher place for the primary classes, but this would necessitate the constant use of unnecessary zeros, making the notation very cumbersome. Fractions are therefore necessary. Dewey uses the hundreds place for his primary classification. Thus, 100 is the general class Philosophy, 160 the subclass Logic, and so on. In his classification for the Princeton library Dr. Richardson uses the thousands place for his primary classes. In a very simple system, two whole numbers, or even one, might be amply sufficient. The Dewey system was begun in 1873, published in 1876, reached its fourth edition in 1891, and its ninth in 1915. In 1915 the A. L. A., with the consent of Dr. Dewey, provided for an advisory committee to aid him in preparing future editions. Probably it is used to-day by several thousand

libraries—more than ever used a single system before—not only in this country, but in Europe, where its adoption by the Brussels Institute of Bibliography has aided much in giving it vogue. Its Brussels adopters have much enlarged its possibilities by combining the notations of various classes to denote the relationships of the title classified. Besides its consistent use of the decimal plan, it makes also a peculiarly intelligent use of mnemonic devices, which aid in the quick understanding and translation into words of any particular combination of figures.

The use of letters of the alphabet for notation, adopted in the Expansive System, has the advantage that, while the sequence of these letters is (or is supposed to be) universally known, the number of letters in a combination and the place of each in a group mean nothing. No use of zeros or any similar device is thus necessary. Subclasses may be denoted by affixing other letters to any extent without making the higher notations cumbersome or without any such device as the decimal point. At the same time the possible number of coördinate divisions is nearly three times as large as with the use of the nine digits and the zero. The Expansive Classification was not published (except in a preliminary way) until 1891, and the sixth expansion was included in 1893. The seventh, including 10,000 subdivisions, has recently been issued. It is claimed by admirers of this system that it is especially logical and up to date in its nomenclature, and the scholarship displayed in its construction is of a high degree. It is probable that the fact that the combinations of letters in its notation mean nothing to the eye (which, as stated above, is really one of its advantages) has somewhat handicapped it in the

race for popularity. A number—196, for example—indicates a certain place in a sequence even to him who knows nothing of the Dewey system, whereas Pxa is somewhat confusing and forbidding.

The classification used in the Library of Congress, which is somewhat familiar to other libraries on account of the appearance of its notation on the L. C. cards, follows Cutter in having twenty-eight primary classes, denoted by letters of the alphabet, with subclasses denoted by a second letter. Further subdivision is effected by the use of numbers in one series, not exceeding 10,000. Where insertion has been necessary, a point has been used, followed by letters and figures. The system has not sought to follow the scientific order of subjects, but rather to find convenient sequence of the various groups.

Evidently these systems, and numerous others, provide for classification as "close" as may be desired. The closer the classification the fewer books in the furthest subclass. Carried to its extreme, this would leave one title in each class; for it may probably be asserted that no two books are so exactly alike that they would defy attempts to place them in separate subclasses. This, of course, is seldom done practically, and in American libraries a "book number" usually has been added to the "class number" to form the notation or "call number" for the individual book, thus distinguishing the different books in the same class. The Cutter "author marks," devised by C. A. Cutter, inventor of the Expansive Classification, are usually employed. These are the initials of the author's name, followed sometimes by other distinguishing letters of the name and qualified by numbers. Thus books on birds, all

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having the Dewey class numbers 598.2, may be discriminated somewhat as follows:

Abbott, C. C., Birdland echoes.....	598.2 A
Miller, O. T., Bird ways.....	598.2 M
Musgrave, M. G., Birds and butterflies....	598.2 M19
Scott, W. E. D., Bird studies.....	598.2 S3
Wright, M. O., Citizen bird.....	598.2 W5

Of late these author numbers, while retained for some classes, are being discarded in others, especially in individual biography and fiction, the books being arranged in the former alphabetically by subject and in the latter by authors. An increasing number of libraries are discarding all book-numbers, shelving each class alphabetically by authors.

Books on the shelves should stand theoretically in the exact sequence indicated by their notation. The old "fixed location," in which every book always stood on the same shelf and bore a "shelf number," is now generally abandoned. Especially in a circulating library, a large proportion of the books are always in use, and this leaves too many empty spaces, which waste shelf room. In the "relative location," now generally used, the individual book rarely shifts its place sufficiently to mislead the user, and the shelves may "accommodate" several thousand more books than they are actually capable of holding. When the number varies there may be trouble, as when circulation falls off in summer.

But shelving often departs more or less from the strict sequence indicated by the notation. In the first place, the classes most used should be placed most conveniently. A little-used class, provided there is no

VARIATION IN LOCATION

reason for pushing or encouraging its use, may be in an out-of-the-way corner. In a closed-shelf library the classes most in demand must be where the assistants can get at them readily. The desire of the librarian to increase the circulation of certain classes may also cause a departure from strict arrangement. Thus in some open-shelf libraries a so-called "ribbon" arrangement of fiction has been adopted, in which the fiction is placed on one shelf around the room, with nonfiction classes above and below it, the expectation being that many users who read only fiction will in this way be attracted to nonfiction books and begin to withdraw and read them. Many eccentricities of shelf arrangement are to be credited to such laudable aims as this. In some children's rooms the stories have been classified and shelved with the nonfiction; thus a historical tale of the French Revolution would be found with histories of that period. The subclassification of adult fiction and its arrangement in corresponding fashion on the shelves has been strongly advocated by some librarians. In at least one library, books in the children's room are arranged by accession number, without classified order, so that the users will be more likely to select nonfiction.

It may be postulated, however, that departure from classified order should be made on the shelves only from some compelling reason. Library users may surely be made to read good books in some other way than that by which rats are induced to take poison, namely, by mixing it with their daily food. Classification of fiction is an excellent thing, but it should be a bibliographical enterprise and should not affect shelf arrangement.

CHAPTER XIII

CATALOGUING

It may be said of catalogues, as it was said of classification in the last chapter, that they are solely for the aid of the public, either directly or through the assistance that they give to the librarian in his work. All catalogues are lists of books, each of whose items describes a book more or less fully. The item may contain just enough to identify the book, or it may include elaborate descriptive matter, accompanied by critical annotations. The principle on which the items are arranged, and, in a lesser degree the fullness and style of the items, determines the kind of catalogue. At present three general types are used for different purposes in most American libraries—the accession catalogue, in which the books are entered chronologically in the order of their addition to the library; the shelf list, in which the order is that in which the books stand on the shelves; and the catalogue proper, in which the entries are, in general, alphabetical. Of these, the first two are solely for the use of the library assistants. The third is used equally by librarians and the public, and in large libraries there are copies or sets for both purposes.

The accession catalogue corresponds to the day book of financial accounts. In it are written, with a more or less detailed description, for identification, the author and title of each book as acquired, each being assigned a

ACCESSION RECORD

serial number, known as an accession number. This number is inseparable from the book while it lives, and dies with it. It represents the actual, material book, not the title; every separate volume of a series and every identical duplicate copy of a work has its own number, which is never changed and never given to any other book. Blank accession books, to be filled by entries of this sort, are sold in several forms, but in all only one line is allowed for each entry. The particulars generally given, besides serial number, author, and title, are publisher's name, source, date, size, and edition with additional space for remarks. These are not always filled out, especially in small libraries.

The accession record is the original record of the books, and should be authoritative. It is used to ascertain certain facts about any particular book, such as the date on which it was added, its source, and its cost. In case of a loss, it tells what sum the loser must be charged; in case of a fire, the insurance adjustment is made by its records. It is, to quote Dr. W. F. Poole (L. J., 3, p. 324), "a transcript (put into bibliographical form) of all the bills and invoices of books purchased; . . . a chronological record of the growth of the library; . . . a record of donations and donors; . . . and a record of the history of every book." For quickness of reference, the accession number must be entered in the book itself in some uniform place (as the page following the title), and also on the shelf list.

There has been of late a rather widespread movement against the use of the accession catalogue, at any rate in the form in which it is commonly found, and an effort to do away with it, either by substituting something else for it or by combining it with some other form of record.

Thus we find some libraries using their original bills as an accession record and others experimenting more or less successfully with combined accession and order lists or accession and general catalogues.

As early as 1878 Justin Winsor objected to the accession catalogue as useless, and endeavored to substitute the shelf list for it—an unsatisfactory change, as pointed out by Dr. Poole, since the shelf list is constantly changing. Filed order cards have been used as the accession record in the Library of Congress and bills, or invoices, in the Boston Public Library, the Springfield City Library, and others. A plan for using a system of “tally cards” in the shelf list instead of the accession book has been proposed by Mr. H. E. Bliss (L. J., 28, p. 711), and Mr. Drew B. Hall (L. J., 28, p. 830) has devised what he calls a “classified and condensed accession record” as an improvement over the usual plan.

The feature to which objection is chiefly made is the necessity of a separate and more or less elaborate entry for each separate book. Thus in some libraries we find the custom of accessioning collections of pamphlets, or even series of books, in one entry. This saves space, provided the collection is already accompanied by its separate list of contents; if not, as such a list must evidently be made and retained, it may as well be entered in the accession book as anywhere else. Other libraries that use many duplicates and purchase large numbers of these at once lament the waste of space involved in filling page after page with ditto marks. Some of these objectors have adopted the practice of giving to a replacement the same number as the volume that it replaces and letting the original accession entry stand. This fulfills some of the requirements of an accession

SHELF LIST

entry, but not others, and is on the whole objectionable. For instance, if the new volume is precisely the same in all particulars as the discarded one (and it is only in such case that anyone advocates the plan here noted), the entry is correct so far as the author, title, and description of the book are concerned. The date of accession, however, is wrong, and this is important in compiling statistics of wear, etc. Again, the accession record should indicate the discarding of a volume and its replacement with a new one; the record should show, at the end of the year, the total number discarded and the total of additions, and this is not done by the record alone unless every volume added, whether a new title, a duplicate, or a replacement, has a separate entry with its new accession number in serial order.

The shelf list, as has been said, is a list of books in the order in which they are shelved. If all the books in the library are shelved by classes, it is also a class list; otherwise not. For instance, if adult books for circulation, children's books, and reference books are shelved separately, the shelf list will not be a class list, since the entries on history, for instance, will be found in three different places. The name "shelf list" is sometimes improperly given to a class list; for instance, the "union shelf list" often kept in systems of branch libraries is really a union class list. The order in which entries appear in it does not correspond with the order of books on any one set of shelves. The entries in a shelf list are brief—merely sufficient to identify the book, unless other features are incorporated with it; as, for instance, when it is used as a classed catalogue. The list is used, in its capacity as a shelf list, chiefly for comparison with the books on the shelves, in taking in-

CATALOGUING

ventory. As a class list, if it be such, it is useful in many other ways, which are sufficiently obvious.

The inventory of books in a library is like the inventory of goods in any establishment or of articles in a man's own house—simply a comparison of the actual ob-

The image shows three overlapping library record forms. The top form is a small card with a grid. The middle form is a larger card with columns for Book No., Accession, Vol., Author, Title, and Date Recd. The bottom form is a long card with columns for Book no., Accession no., Vol., Author, Title, and Class.

SHELF CARD AND SHELF-LIST SHEETS.

jects—in this case, books—with a list, to see whether there is agreement. In the case of goods, however, the inventory is simplified by the owner's ability to take much of it in gross; his list says "100 boxes of Blank's soap," and he has merely to count them to perform his verification. Library lists do not say "500 volumes of history." This

TAKING OF INVENTORY

would not do, because all the books of history are not alike, as the boxes of soap are. The list used is the shelf list, just described, which is primarily made for this very purpose. If all the volumes were on the shelves, comparison would be very simple; but in an ordinary public library some are in the hands of readers at home, some are at the bindery or in process of mending, and so on. It is necessary, therefore, after "reading the shelves," to search every place or record where trace may be found of books not on the shelves. If the shelf list is correct, the titles not found are those of books missing.

A "missing" book may have been stolen from the shelves, or a reader may have taken it home without having it charged, either purposely or through negligence, or it may have been overlooked in one of the comparisons referred to above, or it may have been misplaced or mislaid. Unless stolen or irrecoverably lost, it will turn up at some future time. Books found missing at inventory are listed in a book provided for the purpose, but are not usually reported missing until search has been made for them systematically during a specified number of months. A majority of those missing at first will usually be found shortly; and even after the report has been made—sometimes for several years afterwards—missing books will turn up more or less mysteriously. Every librarian has his own formula for taking inventory, but the object in each case is the same—to prevent omission of any precaution to detect the loss of books. In checking, some librarians use the shelf list itself, erasing check marks afterwards, but a better way is to do the actual work with a rough copy on sheets, the shelf list itself being kept as a standard. The order of procedure may be somewhat as follows:

The shelves and shelf list are first examined to make sure that both are in proper order. The book number is then read from the latter by one assistant while another looks for the book on the shelves. The book number, accession number, and copy number on the shelf list are compared with the record of them entered in the book, and if these do not correspond the book is removed for subsequent correction. When a book is missing, class number, book number, and copy number are entered on the inventory list. Besides the shelves, search is made in the circulation tray, among reserved books, on the mending shelves, among books to be discarded or ready for the binder, among cards for books in the bindery, and finally in shelves and cupboards in all parts of the library. Books still missing after such search should have their authors' titles and accession numbers as given on the shelf list compared with accession book and catalogue for possible error.

Inventory is taken usually once a year, and most librarians look forward to it much as the old-fashioned housekeeper looked forward to her annual "spring housecleaning." It is possible to spread the inventory, like the cleaning, over the greater part of the year, thus mitigating its terrors and making it part of the regular routine work. This method involves the taking of an inventory of a certain class or classes every month. As the same class is always taken in the same month, precisely one year elapses between inventories in each class. The disadvantage, of course, is that the results reported at the end of the year are not quite uniform; thus, if the library year ends on December 31st, the class inventoried in November will show more missing books than that in the previous February, owing to the shorter

elapsed period. The plan, however, has worked well in some large libraries.

The general catalogue may be arranged in any one of various ways. If there is a single entry for each book, and these are arranged alphabetically by authors' names, it is an author catalogue. If they are arranged alphabetically by the chief word in the title, it is a title catalogue. If they are arranged in the order of classification, it is a classed catalogue, and differs from a class list only in the greater fullness of the entries. Classed catalogues, however, do not usually adhere to the strict order of a class list, the entries being often arranged in the alphabetical order of the authors' names within the most important classes. When so arranged, if the groups themselves are arranged in the alphabetical instead of the class order of their subject headings, we have a subject catalogue. A classed catalogue with subject and author indexes is a useful form.

Libraries formerly, and still to some extent, offered their users more than one of these forms of catalogue; for instance, separately arranged author, title, and subject lists; but the common practice now is to throw these together in one alphabetical order, forming a so-called dictionary catalogue. In such a catalogue, then, each book will be represented generally by not less than three entries—namely, an author entry, a title entry, and one or more subject entries. The first two are arranged in regular alphabetical order and the subject entries are arranged each under its appropriate subject in the alphabetical order of the author's name, the subject groups, each preceded by its separate subject heading, being arranged in the alphabetical place of that heading among the author and title entries. This arrangement, though

complex at first sight, has all the advantages of separate author, title, and subject lists, and is more easily consulted, since there is but one alphabet.

It has taken many years' experience to show experts that all sorts of entries may be thrown into one alphabetical order without sacrificing the independence of the separate collections. Thousands of persons have not yet grasped this simple truth and among them are our dictionary-makers, with their separate alphabets for ordinary words, proper names, familiar foreign words, and so on. The Standard Dictionary in its last edition, has thrown most of these words into one alphabet, whereas the International has adopted an arrangement with two alphabets on each page.

In a dictionary catalogue much depends on the proper selection of subject headings. The author entries enable the consulter to ascertain whether the library contains a given book whose author he knows, and what other books by the same author are therein available. The title entries enable him to find whether the library contains a book whose author he has forgotten, but whose title he remembers. The subject entries often enable him to find a book whose author and title are both forgotten, and also to ascertain what kind of a collection and how large the library contains on a given subject. Subject headings should therefore be such as the consulter would be apt to look for, and the more there are the easier the catalogue is to use. To duplicate cards under more than two or three headings, however, involves too much labor and swells the catalogue to too great proportions. Instead of duplicating, it is often sufficient to make cross entries. The form of the headings will depend largely on the knowledge possessed by

the class of persons who are to use the catalogue; thus, in a catalogue for children, technical terms are best avoided. Instead of " Botany " and " Zoölogy," for instance, the more familiar words " Plants " and " Animals " may be used. In a catalogue to be used largely by persons who are looking for works on industrial subjects a much larger number of subject headings on this line would be used, and they would be more closely subdivided than in an ordinary catalogue.

In addition to these entries, so-called " analyticals " may be inserted *ad libitum*. These add to the catalogue an indexing feature, as they represent not books, but parts of books. Such entries are absolutely necessary to complete the catalogue and make it usable, in cases where important information on a subject is to be found in a book on another subject, or where several treatises are grouped together in one volume. They may be multiplied so far that the catalogue practically includes an analytical index to every important work in the library; their value is undoubted, and the only limitations are those of space and expense.

In making a catalogue for the use of the public, the cataloguer should bear in mind that the object of the catalogue is to save the user time and trouble; and everything should be directed to this end. For uniformity's sake, and to avoid confusion, cataloguers have adopted long and minute rules governing the form and style of entries in thousands of different cases. These rules tend to simplify the catalogue and make it easier to consult; but whenever the cataloguer finds that any rule is acting to confuse rather than to aid the consulter, it should be broken without hesitation. A catalogue that is hard to use is *ipso facto* a bad catalogue, no matter how closely

it adheres to rules. In order to consult a catalogue intelligently, the user must have some idea of the principles on which the catalogue is made, or at least he must understand the principal variations in the construction of catalogues, so that if he does not find what he wants in one place, he may seek it in another. It is true that the catalogue should be made on the simplest lines, and so that an uninstructed person may understand it; but no matter how simple it may be, some little knowledge will be necessary.

In the first place, the user must understand the principles of alphabetic arrangement, or at least must know that more than one logical alphabetic order may be possible in certain cases. Even the serial order of the letters of the alphabet is not known to everyone nowadays, since the word method of teaching reading has come into vogue. All children should learn the letters in the traditional order, just as they learn to count, in order that they may be able to use dictionaries, catalogues, indexes, and directories with speed and certainty. Even those who have this order clearly in their memories do not always understand what is meant by the alphabetic order of words, beyond arrangement by initial letters, and such persons are quite at sea in the presence of a large number of alphabetic items. Beyond this there are certain special questions of arrangement whose solution must be more or less arbitrary. It is now customary, for instance, to alphabetize abbreviations as if they were spelled out. For instance, *St. John* (as a surname) goes with the *Sa*'s instead of with the *St*'s. The obvious and sensible reason is that otherwise, if the first word were occasionally spelled out, the name would appear in two widely separated parts of the catalogue. So, too, *Mac-*

Pherson, McPherson, and M'Pherson are all the same name, and should appear together. Suppose, again, that we have combinations of letters forming, in some cases, a single long word and in others two or more short ones. The general usage is now to group together all the phrases that begin with the same word, even where others would properly intervene. Thus we should have the order

Rat-catcher	}	instead of	{	Rat-catcher
Rat-skins				Rate-payer
Rate-payer				Rat-skins

although the latter would be more strictly alphabetical.

It is impossible to tell, of course, when one consults a strange catalogue, dictionary, or index, what method of arrangement has been followed in such case. Simply to know the rule as laid down in some code or text-book is not sufficient. One should understand the different possible orders and test the catalogue to see which has been followed.

The object of the cataloguer in every case, of course, has been to make his list easy to consult, and the variations are due to differences of opinion with regard to the easiest and simplest arrangement. The same may be said with regard to other rules of arrangement and style as laid down in codes of cataloguing—variations are due to genuine difference of opinion about what will make the use of the catalogue easy for the consulter; although sometimes it seems as if the opinion of the expert had been biased by desire for technical uniformity in his system.

There is no space here to do more than indicate a few of the most important items regarding which cataloguers

have made rules and some of the chief variations between different systems of rules. A surprisingly large number of these deal with the form in which an author's name is to be entered. Authors frequently change their names—women by marriage, foreigners by assuming a title, anyone by dropping forenames or hyphenating two elements of the name. It matters little which name shall be used, but it does matter vitally that some one form shall be selected for use and adhered to; otherwise an author's works will be entered in different parts of the same list. Of course, there will be cross references to the form adopted from all other forms, and therefore to save the trouble of turning pages uselessly the form adopted should be the one most familiar to users of the catalogue.

Names beginning with a prefix cause much trouble, and rules for entering them are various. Where the name is foreign, the foreign usage is generally followed. In French the definite article is the only prefix regarded as part of the name; La Fontaine is so entered (under L), but de Lafayette does not go under D. When such names are Anglicized, however, the prefix is always regarded as part of the name; thus De Forest is entered under D. Many bearers of such English names, however, insist on the observance of the foreign rule, and confusion results.

Professional titles are generally added only when distinctive; "Dr.," "Rev.," "Prof.," and the like are ignored. Sometimes this results in lack of clearness; the titles that are dropped for uniformity's sake may in certain cases be as distinctive as the others.

In case of authors bearing titles of nobility, some cataloguers enter always under the family name, referring

AUTHORS' NAMES

from the title. This is the English rule. As the title is often very familiar, while the family name is almost unknown, this is often awkward, and the American rule allows entry under the title in such cases. Equally awkward is the inflexible English rule that princes of royal blood are to be entered under their forenames. The Duke of the Abruzzi is thus simply "Luigi" in a catalogue, and becomes unidentifiable. Married women are entered sometimes under their married names and sometimes under their maiden names. Hyphenated names may be given under either element. Pseudonyms or real names may be used. Many cataloguers have insisted on the insertion of full names, no matter how long disused. They have discovered, for instance, that Dickens's name was "Charles John Huffam Dickens," and he is paraded in many a catalogue under this style. The use of such a proceeding as this would seem absolutely undiscoverable. There is now a tendency toward common sense and the relaxation of rules for rules' sake. In the latest compilation of cataloguing rules, agreed upon jointly by committees of the American Library Association and the Library Association of the United Kingdom, and known as the "Anglo-American rules," many changes in this direction may be observed. But usage differs in different countries; the most familiar form in one is relatively unfamiliar in another, and much fault is found even with this latest mentor, especially by British librarians. If there were a library czar to prescribe uniform cataloguing rules for the world's libraries and to enforce them strictly, nothing but good would result, no matter how objectionable the rules might be in themselves.

Other points on which rules are laid down, and re-

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garding which usage differs, are the entry of government or institutional publications, form of the place of publication (vernacular or English), the order of entries, etc. The items that may be included in a single entry of a catalogue may be seen from the following list given by James Duff Brown in the order that he favors:

- Author
- Title
- Edition
- Place of publication
- Date of publication
- Imprint particulars (for old and rare books only)
- Number of volumes (*v.*)
- Size
- Series
- Illustrations (*i., ill.*)
- Portraits (*ports.*)
- Maps (*ma.*)
- Plans (*pl.*)
- Facsimiles (*fac.*)
- Diagrams (*dia.*)
- Tables (*tab.*)
- Genealogical charts (*gen.*)
- Music (*mus.*)
- Memoir (*mem.*)
- Glossary (*glo.*)
- Bibliography (*bib.*)

For special books, there may also be noted bindings, superlibros, autographs of eminent owners, book plates, and the existence of printed bibliographical descriptions in other works.

The abbreviations, in italics, used in making these

CARD CATALOGUES

entries are annexed in parentheses. These vary considerably in different catalogues.

The catalogue may also be indefinitely lengthened by the insertion of descriptive or critical annotations. The former, in general, are required in all entries that are not self-explanatory. To the author entry the dates of the author's birth and death are often systematically added. The value of critical annotations in an ordinary catalogue is in dispute. It has been pointed out that such catalogues now usually contain no guide to the reader to point out which books in the collection, on a given subject, are authoritative and which are discredited. In spite of this, however, it may be best to omit such information from the catalogue of a general public library. Authorities are seldom agreed on such matters, and it is not right that the cataloguer should set himself up as an expert on all the arts and sciences together. Even a credited quotation from an authority is *ex parte*.

So far, nothing has been said regarding the mechanical construction of the catalogue. In modern catalogues ease of consultation, especially by several persons at a time, and the possibility of inserting new entries in their proper order at any time without interfering with the others, have been regarded as more important than the large duplication of copies, except in special instances.

The general catalogue, therefore, is now almost universally made on cards, with one or more cards to an entry and never more than one entry on a single card. These are filed in light trays arranged as drawers in a cabinet, and are kept in place by a rod running through holes in the lower edge of each card, and fastened or locked to the tray by one end. When a new entry is to be inserted, the rod is withdrawn and the new card sim-

ply placed in its proper order. By making the trays small and light, as is now the custom, they may be removed for consultation, and any number of persons may use the catalogue at once, provided two do not desire to look at the same trayful of cards.

Cards may be arranged otherwise than in trays. For instance, they may be lightly gummed to the leaves of one or more scrapbooks, so that their location may quickly be changed when a new card is to be inserted. This method is practically that still employed in the British Museum. The book may consist of loose leaves in a binder, as in the *Bibliothèque Nationale* in Paris.

Cards filed in a tray, or even in a scrapbook, quickly soil with handling. In the Rudolph indexer, formerly used in the Newberry Library at Chicago, there was no handling; the cards are mounted on a device that is turned mechanically under glass. Various forms of "visible index," used chiefly in business, but capable of adoption to advantage by libraries for short catalogues or lists, display large numbers of cards or slips on a single surface, facilitating rapid consultation.

But despite the advantages of other methods of arrangement, cards filed in a tray are now used almost exclusively, and are on the whole most satisfactory.

If cards are not used at all, two other arrangements offer themselves. Either the entries are written, type-written, or printed in an ordinary book, in which case new entries cannot be inserted at all; or they are written on loose leaves, with spaces between, so that new entries may be interlined, a leaf being entirely rewritten and replaced when necessary. The large printed catalogue in many volumes is a monumental enterprise, and quickly goes out of date. Usually the earlier volumes

are far behind the times before the later ones are issued. Still, such catalogues are of undoubted use, especially for a standard collection not subject to great change, and large libraries still occasionally undertake them. Since the invention of the linotype machine it is possible for a library that issues a monthly list of additions to save the slugs and combine them later in a more comprehensive list, or even in a general catalogue. This is done by the Boston Public Library in issuing its annual lists.

The method of writing on loose leaves has found some favor, especially of recent years, in Europe, where a modification of it has been named the "sheaf catalogue." In certain cases, where the eye must take in a large number of entries at once, as in examining the resources of a library under a single subject heading or under an author's name, an arrangement on a broad sheet, of course, makes the task easier. Such an arrangement is also more in accord with our acquired habit of reading from a large page rather than from many small ones. The advantages of card arrangement, however, are so great that American public libraries rarely use other devices, except occasionally for shelf lists, and almost universally for the accession record, where entries are consecutive, and interpolation is therefore not required.

Entries may be made on catalogue cards in three different ways—written, typewritten, or printed. Written cards have much in their favor as compared with typewritten ones, especially the greater possibility of variation in lettering, and the consequent ability to emphasize or differentiate in the entry by using different letters and different colored inks. The invention of the

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bicolored typewriter ribbon has done much to bring typewritten cards into favor. Manufacturers of typewriting machines are now paying special attention to

<p>B Al41 c</p>		<p>Colleges and Universities.</p> <p>Compayré, Gabriel. Abelard & the origin & early history of universities. 1899.</p>
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CATALOGUE CARD, TYPEWRITTEN. (Subject card.)

this use of them, and almost any of the well-known makes may be employed in writing catalogue cards.

Printed cards are best of all, as they combine absolute legibility with the possibility of placing the maximum number of words on a card. They can, however, be used only by large libraries, on account of expense, except in cases where coöperative cards are available. The cards printed by the Library of Congress are now purchasable at cost as public documents, and large numbers of American libraries avail themselves of the privilege. These cards are printed for all current accessions, including, of course, all current American copyright books, and also for selected titles among the accessions of previous years, the intention being to make ultimately

PRINTED CARDS

a complete printed card catalogue of the National Library. A very large proportion of the current purchases of the ordinary small town or city library may therefore be catalogued in this way. There is some complaint that the cards are occasionally slow in appearing, so that libraries that desire to keep their catalogues strictly up to date cannot wait for them; but, on the other hand, the cards are often in the library's possession before the corresponding books are on the market. Besides these cards, other printed cards are available. The United States Department of Agriculture has issued such cards for its publications for many years, and analytical cards are printed by the publishers of certain

824.	Salisbury R A. J. Gascoyne Cecil.
531	<p>marquess of.</p> <p>Essays. 2v. 40s D L. Murray 1905. 2s.</p> <p>Vol W</p> <p>Contents:</p> <p>V. 1. Biographical. Lord Castlereagh. Stan. w hopes Life of Pitt.</p> <p>V. 2. Foreign politics: Poland. The Danish duchies. Foreign policy.</p> <p>○</p>

CATALOGUE CARD, WRITTEN. (Author card.)

works of reference, as well as by the American Library Association Publishing Board. If this goes on, the maker of a catalogue may be able before long to purchase all but a few of his cards ready-made.

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The hope that these ready-made cards might greatly reduce the labor and expense of cataloguing, however, has yet been realized only partially. In the first place, the classification used is generally different from that of the using library, so that the most difficult and expensive part of the cataloguer's work still remains to be done. Then the cards are usually issued in only one form—that of author card—and additions must be writ-

Harrison, Mrs. Amelia (Williams), 1852-1903.

Snow Bird and the Water Tiger and other American Indian tales, by Margaret Compton [*pseud.*] With drawings by Walter Conant Greenough. New York, Dodd, Mead and company, 1895.

5 p. 1., 201 p. 16 pl. (incl. col. front.) 20^{cm}.

Illus. t.-p.

1. Indians of North America—Legends. 2. Folk-lore, Indian.

Library of Congress

E98.F6H3

6-21226

CATALOGUE CARD, PRINTED. (Library of Congress.)

ten or typewritten in order that they may serve as title or subject cards. Taking everything into consideration, it is probable that the advantages of such cards lie rather in the fuller forms of entry, the authoritative annotations, and the greater legibility than in cheapness. Such cards are especially useful where extensive duplication is necessary, as where a library has a large system of branches. In the New York Public Library, for instance, with its forty branches, the purchase of a book

requiring four cards to each catalogue would necessitate an order for 160 printed cards, provided it were to be placed in each branch. This would be an exceptional case, but orders for 50 to 100 duplicate cards are not unusual. If ready-made cards are not obtainable, printing, if possible, is, of course, the best mode of duplication, since every duplicate is as legible as the original. Duplication by carbon, in the typewriter, is not available, owing to the thickness of the cards. The multi-graph gives as legible duplicates as the printing press, and this form of duplicator is now widely used for this purpose. Written and typewritten cards alike may be duplicated with some form of gelatine machine, some of which give fairly good results.

When the various cards of a catalogue are produced in different ways, the result is lack of uniformity, to which some librarians object. Some cataloguers, whose libraries cannot go to the expense of printing all their cards uniformly, are having all typewritten or all written in the same style of library hand to secure uniformity. Lack of uniformity, however, provided all the cards are equally legible, does not interfere with the usefulness of the catalogue, and the extra labor expended upon making them uniform is better employed in other ways.

The introduction of the open-shelf system has had some important bearings on the arrangement and use of catalogues. If all the books in such an arrangement were to remain permanently shelved, they would theoretically serve as their own catalogue, except for cross reference, which could well be introduced on dummies. But practically a catalogue is still needed. The case is similar to that of the alphabetical arrangement of arti-

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cles in an encyclopedia, which, it was formerly thought, made an index unnecessary. The material in each article, however, especially when it is at all comprehensive, requires indexing in itself, and hence all good encyclopedias now include an index volume, so that the alphabetical arrangement of the articles themselves is no longer absolutely necessary, and has even been given up in one or two indexed works of reference, although retained in most of them. A cyclopedia with articles arranged alphabetically or in some classified order may be compared to an open-shelf library; one without orderly arrangement of any kind, to a closed-shelf library, in which a catalogue is an absolute necessity. But just as no orderly arrangement of articles in a cyclopedia has made it possible to give up indexing it, so no accessible orderly arrangement of books on shelves has enabled librarians to discard the catalogue. Even if all books remained shelved, the necessity for cross references and analytical entries, as well as for many author and title entries, would make the retention of the catalogue imperative. But in a circulating collection a large number of books may be absent for months, and even in a reference collection a considerable part may be withdrawn for hours at a time. The books on the shelves, therefore, at no time represent the whole collection, and those that are absent are apt to be the most valuable to the user, since they are most in demand. To find out what the collection contains, the user must consult the catalogue. It is a fact, however, that as soon as access to a collection is made free the use of the catalogue at once falls off noticeably. In a closed-shelf library the cards in a card catalogue are so frequently handled that the edges become quickly soiled, and they require re-

OPEN SHELF AND CATALOGUE

placement. The catalogue cards in an open-shelf library stay clean almost indefinitely. Furthermore, the crowd around the catalogue in a closed-shelf library and its absence in an open-shelf library tell their own tale. These contrasts are especially noticeable in a city library where some branches are conducted on the open-shelf and some on the closed-shelf principle. It seems clear, then, that the users of an open-shelf collection are content, in general, to take the "left-overs" that they find on the shelves, without investigation of the library's real resources. This should not be taken as an argument against free access, but rather as an intimation to the librarian and the cataloguer that special effort should be made in open-shelf libraries to encourage use of the catalogue and to make it as useful as possible. The user at the shelves should be continually reminded, perhaps by signs and, at any rate, by word of mouth, that the books most in demand on the subject in which he is interested are not likely to be found on the shelves, and that these, as well as valuable articles and chapters on the subject, can be discovered only by the use of the catalogue. The cataloguer should bear in mind that analytical entries are especially valuable in an open-shelf library, and that time may be gained for making them by omitting much of the imprint and superfluous parts of the title that are particularly unnecessary in such a library on account of the accessibility of the books themselves.

CHAPTER XIV

THE LIBRARY STAFF

THE duties of members of an ordinary library staff may be (1) administrative, (2) advisory or educational, (3) disciplinary, (4) clerical, or (5) connected with the actual distribution of the books, including their purchase and preparation.

Administrative work is that of the librarian, and in large libraries of the heads of departments—of all, in short, who direct or oversee the work of others and settle upon matters of general policy. Advisory work is done more or less by all assistants who come into contact with the public, but especially by those at the desk or on floor duty, children's librarians, and reference librarians. Disciplinary work is also shared by assistants in general to some degree, but a larger share than the average falls to those on floor duty, to custodians of reading rooms, and to children's librarians. Clerical work involves keeping the statistical records, the bookkeeping of the library, the preparation of overdue postals, reserve postals, acknowledgment of gifts, ordering and distribution of supplies, and the like, and the writing of letters from dictation. There is little of it in a small library. The work connected with the purchase, preparation, and distribution of books requires more time probably than all the other classes of work put together. It includes the selection of titles, the ordering of the

books, the checking of the bills, the various operations of cataloguing, the affixing of labels, pockets, and so on; the writing of book cards; application work, including the receipt and filing of applications, registration, and the issuing of borrowers' cards; work connected with the charging and discharging of books at the desk, the assessment and collection of fines and damages; collation, mending, and selection for binding; and, finally, withdrawal from the shelves for discarding. All these operations may be performed by the same person or persons, but in a large institution there are separate departments, or at least separate assistants, for (1) book ordering, (2) cataloguing and classification, (3) mending, binding, and discarding. Work at the loan desk is also sometimes assigned to a separate body of assistants.

Not strictly library work, but very necessary to library efficiency, is that of the building staff, which often consists of but one man, the janitor. In many libraries he lives, with his family, in the building and is constantly within call. Besides the ordinary duties of caring for the building, its safety and cleanliness, its lighting and heating, he is sometimes charged with the care of grounds, where there are any, with messenger work, or with police functions.

The working hours for each member of the staff in an American public library vary from six to eight daily. Most libraries are open more hours in a day than this, and the hours of work are adjusted either by employing a special evening force or by correspondingly increasing the regular staff and dividing the evening work among its members, or among part of them. In the latter case, each member may be required to work the same number of hours daily, but at different times of day, or the work-

THE LIBRARY STAFF

ing hours of a given assistant may be longer on the days when evening work is assigned than on the others. It may even be possible to allow the greater part of a day or a whole day off every week, and still to keep up the required daily average. This latter system is generally in favor among assistants where a special night force is not employed, but it is apt to be condemned by

New York Public Library,										
Name		CIRCULATION DEPARTMENT.							Branch.	
190	Forenoon		Afternoon		Evening		Total Hours	Time Lost	Over Time	REMARKS
	Arr.	Dep't.	Arr.	Dep't.	Arr.	Dep't.				
1										
2										
3										
4										
5										
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TIME SHEET.

head librarians. The former report that the weekly holiday is so advantageous from the standpoint of general health that the quality of their work is improved; the latter say that schedule-making is rendered doubly difficult by the irregularity, that it is hard to concentrate the work of the force on those hours when it is most needed, and that the working hours are too long for good work on the longer days. As regards a separate evening force, it may be said in favor of the plan that it makes

possible an absolutely uniform daily schedule, which is much easier for administrators; but, on the other hand, the transition between the day and night forces is abrupt, they do not work together, and the work is separated arbitrarily into two daily sections, with more or less breach of continuity. Absolute uniformity of daily work, too, is not a desideratum with the working staff, most of whose members prefer variety and work better when they have it, especially when it involves a considerable rest period on some one day. A similar problem presents itself in the case of holidays. Legal holidays or their equivalent are generally allowed to the staff, even when the library is kept open for full hours. A special force may be employed for such days, or holiday work throughout the year may be divided among the staff, those who work being given the time on some other day. The objections to the special force are of the same nature, though stronger, than those to a special evening force. Compulsory division of holiday labor works well enough on some holidays, such as Memorial Day or Labor Day; and when the library is closed on such days as Christmas and the Fourth of July this plan is probably the best. But all holidays are not equally desirable, and when a library is open on Christmas, an assistant would hardly feel compensated for working on that day by the knowledge that some other member of the staff had been forced to work on Labor Day. A successful plan, satisfactory to all, is to operate the library on all holidays, or at least on the important ones, with volunteers from the regular staff, and to increase the compensation for those days to such a degree as to make it worth while to volunteer. In the New York Public Library, whose Carnegie branch buildings are open on legal holidays, extra

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pay is given for such days, calculated on the basis of the regular salary; and there has never been any trouble in securing the requisite number of volunteers.

Most libraries allow a certain period yearly for illness; and in the case of old and valued assistants longer periods are sometimes excused, full salary being paid. The trouble about the allowance of a definite period is that an idea is apt to grow in the minds of the staff that they are expected to take this amount, and assistants remain at home for indispositions so slight that they would otherwise be unnoticed. Heads of libraries are obliged to be on their guard against the spread of such an impression as this.

Library vacations vary from two weeks to one month yearly, with salary—quite commonly the larger period. This is large, compared with commercial vacations, but small compared with the three months allowed the teacher, with whom the librarian, as an educator, insists upon being compared. Vacations are commonly taken in summer, when the work is slack, generally in the months from June to September, inclusive. August is a favorite month, and if libraries could be universally closed at this time the assistants, if not the public, would be pleased.

Leaves of absence, without salary, are granted with greater or less freedom in different institutions. The woman assistant is not generally robust, and she often needs an extra month to recuperate. It is often good policy to allow it in some cases where such a favor would not be thought of in a staff composed wholly of men. If granted to many persons at once, especially in the vacation season, however, such leaves run the risk of seriously injuring the efficiency of the library. The libra-

SALARIES

rian has then to choose between the chance of losing an assistant permanently from overwork or nervous breakdown and the certainty of crippling the work of his library by operating it with substitutes.

This inability of many woman assistants to do the year's work without breaking down, even when a month's vacation is allowed, brings up the question of the employment of women in libraries. A very large proportion of the assistants in American public libraries is now made up of women. Library work is generally regarded as a "genteel" employment, peculiarly fitted for women. That it is so fitted no one will deny; but it is not suited for any who are not in robust health.

It may be noted here, on the other side of the shield, that a recent report of the medical officer of the New York Public Library states that the women assistants in that library are in better physical condition than the men. If this should ever prove to be generally true, what has been said above may need revision.

The salaries paid to women assistants are not as high as those received by teachers of the same grade, with which they may be properly compared. It is difficult to decide upon corresponding grades in the two professions, but, sex for sex, it is safe to say that in a small town a school principal receives three times as much as the head of the public library, and assistants are paid in even a higher ratio, while in a large city the head of a school has a salary two to three times larger than that of a branch librarian. Library salaries are tending upward, but so are school salaries, and it will be a long time before the former overtake the latter. In estimating salaries it should be remembered also that

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teachers work nine months of the year and librarians eleven months.

Certainly, as things now are, although American library salaries are far higher than those paid for the same work in other countries, no one would be attracted to the library profession in this country on account of its financial emoluments alone. Only a few of the larger positions pay over \$5,000 a year. Heads of departments in large libraries may receive \$1,500 to \$3,000, and chief librarians in the smaller cities about the same. Women who are the heads of town libraries, with three to six assistants, are paid \$800 to \$1,200; heads of city branch libraries about the same. Assistants of the higher grades receive \$650 to \$1,000; those of lower grades from \$500 up. Special work, such as that with children, commands a somewhat higher rate of compensation. These rates have risen during twenty-five years past, but hardly more than the cost of living. In New York, public-library salaries, for example, have increased in that time from 50 to 100 per cent; the average would be nearer the smaller figure—perhaps 60 per cent. The rate is so low in the lower grades as to preclude the employment of any but those living at home in the city where the library is situated. This is not conducive to the improvement of assistants in quality of work and in education, and, besides, it favors the employment of those who work not for self-support, but merely for pin money. This class, especially large among women workers, exercises a potent influence in keeping down the salaries of women, and its members, not being dependent on what they earn, are less often interested in their work and more apt to leave it on some slight pretext. Another respect in which library positions are still inferior from the stand-

PROMOTIONS

point of compensation is that of pensions. Here and there the head of a library who has spent his life in its service is retired on a pension, but no library has a comprehensive system such as those now common in other occupations. A general fund to be used for pensioning librarians, in the same way that the \$15,000,000 Carnegie Foundation serves to pension college professors, is looked forward to by many librarians as a possibility, or at least an ideal, of the future, and a committee of the American Library Association has collected statistics with a view to facilitating the endowment of such a fund. Of course, there is nothing to prevent the formation of a voluntary benefit association among the employees of any library, either with or without the coöperation of the authorities, or the compulsory withdrawal of a certain percentage from each salary, to be held by the library for this purpose. But to set a system of this kind in operation a considerable sum is needed at the outset, even when the contributions or enforced percentages of the employees are sufficient to keep it going. This means the raising of an endowment fund, the assumption of liability by a municipality or other corporate body, or the stipulation that no pension shall be paid until the fund has grown to the required sum. This last plan involves contribution by many employees without hope of return, and is both unfair and impracticable.

In American public libraries increases of salary are made in various ways, which they share with other institutions of all kinds. Salaries may be raised (1) for length of approved service, whether strictly by seniority, as in the army, or with some variation from the exact order; (2) by selection presumably, but not necessarily,

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for merit; (3) for merit, as ascertained by a test of some sort. These criteria are often combined in one way or another. For instance, the force may be divided into grades, according to the kind of work required of them, a maximum and minimum of salary being prescribed for each grade. Within the grade increase of salary may be for good work, or for length of service, or for both. Promotion from grade to grade may depend on the passage of an examination, on satisfactory work in the previous grade, and on personal qualifications. The number in some grades will be limited by the necessities of the case, as, for instance, when a grade consists only of branch librarians. In such a case either of two plans may be followed. Those who have qualified for the class may be placed on an eligible list, and selection may be made from these to fill a vacancy, on its occurrence, either by seniority or according to personal qualifications. Or, no one need be allowed to qualify until the vacancy occurs, when the test may be competitive or selection may be made at will from those who pass it for this occasion only. Libraries that have been placed under city civil-service rules are relieved from all responsibilities in this matter, but most librarians do not like this plan. Civil-service examiners rarely frame examinations to suit library requirements, and the selection and promotion of the library force is better cared for by its own trustees.

As to examinations in general, it may be admitted that they are an imperfect method of ascertaining fitness. They have, however, the advantage of making it evident that all candidates are to be treated exactly alike, and, taken in connection with observation of work and personal qualifications, they are productive of satisfac-



BATES HALL (READING ROOM), BOSTON PUBLIC LIBRARY.



READING ROOM, LIBRARY OF CONGRESS, WASHINGTON, D. C.

1875

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tory results. The ordinary civil-service examination, as viewed by the comic paragrapher, has little to do with the duties of the position; examiners are popularly supposed to question would-be policemen on Siberian geography, firemen on the theory of equations, and so on. There has been some justification in the past for such ideas, and library examinations should be kept strictly to the subject in hand, general education being ascertained by school certificates. Subjects that are eminently proper for examination, as knowledge of them is required daily by the library assistant, are library economy, literature, general information, statistics, and languages. This subject is treated further in the chapter on Library Training.

In all good library buildings special quarters are assigned to the staff. The uses of these are various. They generally include cloakrooms; toilet accommodations; space for rest, especially in case of sudden indisposition; and facilities for preparing and eating a light meal. Preferably the rooms should be all together, and in a small library most of them may be concentrated in one room, although some libraries prefer that the cloak-room, or lockers for wraps, should be in a different part of the building from the lunch and rest rooms. Facilities for lunch will naturally be more elaborate in large cities, where the distances interfere with taking lunch at home. Here there is often a separate room, or at least a separate alcove, for a kitchen, with sink, dresser, and gas stove. If there is to be any more use of the stove than the mere heating of water for tea, the kitchen should be separated from the rest of the staff quarters by a tight door, and should have an outside window. The rest room and room for eating lunch

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may properly be combined. The quarters, with the possible exception of the lockers for wraps, should be on an upper floor. When it is desirable to have them accessible, they should be equally distant from all departments, but some librarians prefer to have them in a somewhat remote part of the building. Libraries having both men and women on the force must, of course, provide separate staff accommodations for them.

In most American libraries meetings of the staff, entire or in part, are held either statedly or occasionally, on call of the librarian. The different kinds may be illustrated by those held in the New York Public Library. Here the whole staff of the library is invited to meet the Director at stated intervals (at present, once in two months), except in summer. These meetings are much like those of a library club. A programme is arranged by a committee, which appoints a different chairman for each meeting; and refreshments are served by an entertainment committee. According to the interest of the programme, the attendance may vary from fifty up to several hundred. Different evenings in the week are chosen for meeting, so that no assistant may be always prevented from attending by being on evening duty. A meeting of the librarians in charge of branches is held weekly, with certain exceptions. This has no social features, nor is there any formal programme. The business consists in the discussion of current books, the examination of a certain number of these sent to the library on approval, the discussion of current points of library administration, and the giving out of notices by the heads of departments. No matter is decided by vote, although votes are sometimes taken to secure an expression of opinion. In libraries where no branch system ex-

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ists, and even in some where it does exist, a meeting of the heads of offices or departments is often held for similar purposes and conducted in a similar way.

Each head of a branch library is permitted to hold a meeting of her own staff at stated intervals, and most of them take advantage of this permission. The assistants generally sit about a table, and there is informal discussion of matters pertaining to the branch. This type of meeting is appropriate to any small library.

Heads of departments meet with assistants engaged in their own line of work, for instruction in and discussion of methods. Thus the Supervisor of Children's Work meets with heads of children's rooms; the Supervisor of School Work, with school assistants; the Supervisor of Practice, with the branch-librarians, in regard to the practice of the Library School students and of the probationers for library service.

These meetings probably represent all of the various types possible or desirable in any ordinary public library. In some institutions such a meeting is dignified by some such name as that of "Library Council," and it is endowed with quasi-legislative functions. Such functions are, however, exercised merely by permission of the librarian, who may obviously follow the directions of his council or not, as he likes. Its relations to him are advisory, like those of the President's Cabinet, and are not properly legislative, although they might, of course, be made so by action of the trustees. Advice from members of the staff is, or should be, an important factor in the administration of every library, and it should be taken both individually and collectively. A librarian may learn much and receive many valuable suggestions from a private conversation with a member

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of his staff that would not be placed at his disposal in a general meeting. On the other hand, information may come to light and ideas may be thrown out in the give-and-take of informal discussion at a round-table meeting which would probably never make their appearance in any other way.

In the course of time a body of custom, tradition, and minor rules and regulations grows up in a library. The action of members of the staff is guided by these, often unconsciously. It is a matter of opinion to what extent it is desirable to codify them, or even to commit them to writing. A certain amount of elasticity must exist in any such system, and any attempt to formulate a fixed code is apt to meet with failure. The exceptions will be more numerous than the rules, and changes or additions will be found necessary almost daily. The tendency toward rigidity or elasticity will depend largely on the librarian's turn of mind. One administrator may prefer to make an attempt at an extensive code of rules, another may be content with laying down general principles and noting a few applications, while a third may reject all formulation. Still another method is to require reference to the librarian in all doubtful cases—a plan that is perhaps best in a small staff of inexperienced assistants.

In a large library, and especially in one with a system of widely scattered branches, some means of communication between the librarian and the members of his staff becomes a necessity. Notices may be given out at staff meetings, and written bulletins may be sent out or posted at intervals. One of the most effective ways of securing attention to these notices is to send them out collectively at stated intervals in the form of a written

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or mimeographed "newspaper," in which may also be included a calendar of events and such local notes as may seem likely to interest the staff. Such a staff paper is now issued at several libraries, and in some cases it has assumed, more or less, the form of a general library paper. This should not be carried so far as to conceal the character of the paper as an official bulletin. Every member of the staff should be required to read it as soon as issued, and to consider the notices contained therein, so far as they apply, as personal orders. Ignorance of its contents should not be received as an excuse.

CHAPTER XV

LIBRARY PHILANTHROPY

PROBABLY no public activity has received larger gifts from individual benefactors than the library. Such gifts have been so many and so large, especially during the past fifteen years, that they have been looked upon with disfavor by many persons, who believe that the growth of libraries has been stimulated abnormally by them. This is, however, a superficial view. That library growth and extension have been favored by such gifts is indubitable; but such growth has still been normal—the growth of a well-watered plant, not that of hothouse fruit. That this is so may be seen from a study of the distribution of library extension over the country. It has by no means been confined to places where large gifts have made it easy, but either the growth or its preliminary symptoms appear in thousands of regions that neither hope for nor expect such gifts. Again, in many places where gifts were available the community has preferred not to take advantage of them, but to establish its own library and provide it with a building entirely at public expense. Most of the larger library gifts, too, have been of such a nature that they require public co-operation, so that, in the long run, the private benefaction that is the nucleus of the library snowball is almost as nothing within the accreted mass of public contributions that clings around it. This public aid has been

cheerfully given. It has, apparently, resulted from the general recognition of a fact to which public attention has been forcibly directed by the gift rather than from any kind of abnormal stimulation. The large benefactions of recent years have, in fact, been directed into the library channel by the donors' farseeing recognition of a public need rather than by any desire to establish institutions without which the public could get on just as well. In fact, it is perhaps not too much to say that the present library plant of the United States, representing as it does many million dollars' worth of gifts, as well as a still larger amount from public contribution, would have come into being, in some such fashion as at present, without a single gift, although not, of course, as soon as it has done.

The elementary fact to which this recent multiplication of library gifts has been a response, and which has made itself evident in many other fields than that of the library, is the great recent increase in the number of habitual readers—a necessary incident of the spread of popular education. In part, of course, this increase is itself due to the multiplication of popular libraries. The number of books available for popular reading and the number of persons qualified to read them are interdependent quantities, like the area and the temperature of ignition. Fire raises the temperature, and the raised temperature causes more material to take fire, so that the burning goes on "of itself." So readers demand books, and an available supply of books incites more persons to read. This process, too, like all educational processes, thus goes on "of itself" so long as there is any fuel; in other words, any human beings with brains. Given a number of intelligent men and women and means by

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which they may become acquainted with the results of human thought elsewhere in the world and at other times than their own, and libraries and readers—both increasing in number—follow as a matter of course. Library donations, therefore, are due to man's desire to help his fellow-man, directed into one of the channels of least resistance.

It does not follow, of course, that these donations have always been made in the most enlightened way. Probably the least wise are those under which buildings have been erected or libraries have been established with no provision for their support and maintenance. In such a case the library is generally a private memorial, and public support is difficult, under the circumstances, to procure for it. Such a memorial should be accompanied by a sufficient endowment to keep it up properly; but as a gift of this kind is entirely removed from the public, which has no part, and therefore no interest, in the way in which it is carried on, it is by no means the best form of library donation. Probably the best way to contribute money to a public library without removing the public from a share in its activities is the one that has been the object of the greatest number of attacks, namely, the one typified by the gifts of Mr. Andrew Carnegie. Mr. Carnegie's gifts have almost exclusively taken the form of buildings—not the essential part of a library, as has been frequently pointed out. These buildings, however, have not been erected and then left to take care of themselves, as in the cases referred to above, for the gifts are always made on the express condition that the municipality (in which the title is always vested) will execute a contract to support the institution by a yearly grant of not less than one tenth of the

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value of the gift. As a matter of fact, one tenth is generally insufficient; in exceptional cases a requirement of fifteen per cent has been included in the contract; and it has been suggested that this might well be made a general rule. Ten per cent, however, is merely an inferior limit; the city or town binds itself in any case to support the library properly; and in all instances where it has been shown to the satisfaction of the authorities that ten per cent is insufficient, a larger appropriation has generally been forthcoming. In New York, for instance, where the average value of Carnegie branch buildings is \$80,000, the average cost of maintenance is \$12,000—fifteen per cent instead of ten—but the city has not objected to the increased amount required. In St. Louis the two fifths mill tax levied by the city for library purposes brings in about \$200,000, whereas the total amount contributed by Mr. Carnegie for buildings is \$1,000,000. In fact, in making these gifts, the donor has seen to it that the institution so established or aided shall be permanent, and he has so arranged it that the part of the work assumed by the public shall be that which insures its continued and vital interest. Had the donor merely agreed to endow such libraries as should be provided with proper buildings by the municipality, the result, while financially the same, would have been practically inferior. As it is, the public is closely interested in the way in which the library is administered, and may be moved, as in some recent cases, to protest against what it considers an inefficient or out-of-date management, which would hardly be the case with an endowed institution.

It is undoubtedly true that, in some instances, towns have accepted a gift from Mr. Carnegie where they

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could ill afford his conditions. This, of course, was bad judgment on their part. The conditions are always fully stated; moreover, they are always the same, have become widely known, and their operation in hundreds of cases is familiar to all who are interested sufficiently to look them up. More than one municipality, including several cities of considerable size, have refused offers from this donor because they considered his conditions onerous. In so doing they have been quite within their rights, and are more worthy of praise than if they had overburdened themselves by accepting the gift. It may be doubted, however, whether there may not be a better course in every case than outright rejection, except in cases where the town has decided upon a library, but prefers to establish it without outside aid. The position that a city or town needs no public library is an impossible one to take in this stage of the country's progress. The maintenance of such an educational factor is a proper charge against the annual budget, and it ought to be possible to calculate what sum may be appropriated yearly without making the tax rate burdensome. This sum may then be capitalized at ten per cent (if this is the proportion named in the conditions), and the donor may be notified that a gift of this size will be accepted. It is worth noting, however, that in some of the principal cases where large gifts, offered by Mr. Carnegie, have been refused, some consideration other than expense has had weight. Two such cases are Richmond, Va., and Albany, N. Y., which latter place rejected his offer in a popular election held for the purpose of considering it. In Richmond it is said that hesitation over the race problem had much to do with the refusal, although this question, as noted elsewhere, has been at-

tacked and solved by other Southern cities; and in Albany the hostility of the labor element was a potent factor in the action that was taken.

The gifts of Mr. Carnegie have made up such a large part of American library philanthropy that no excuse is necessary for going into them somewhat at length. Andrew Carnegie is a millionaire ironmaster, who was born in Dunfermline, Scotland, in 1835, and came to this country as a boy in 1845. Beginning as a telegraph messenger, he became finally the proprietor of a large iron-rolling mill, from which grew his immense control of the iron and steel industries. His donations to libraries now (March 15, 1917) amount to \$65,069,000, distributed among 2,865 institutions. Mr. Carnegie's interest in libraries dates from the time when, as a poor boy, he was benefited by access to one. He has publicly disclaimed the title of philanthropist, asserting that he is "no such foolish fellow." His gifts, as already noted, are made in such a way that the recipient must ultimately contribute a far larger amount than the donor, and that this contribution shall be continuous, insuring the recipient's direct financial interest in the efficient operation of the library. Such gifts have been regarded in all sorts of ways, some persons looking at them as no gifts at all and others as the only appropriate form of donation.

Mr. Carnegie's donations have also been looked upon as prompted solely or largely by egotism and desire for self-advertisement. It should be noted that none of them have been accompanied by any stipulation or request that the donor shall be commemorated in any way, or even that his name shall be inscribed on the building. The name "Carnegie libraries" is a popular one, and

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rarely official. Boards of trustees, of course, frequently and properly put up tablets or inscriptions to the effect that the library building was erected with funds given by Andrew Carnegie, but the donor has never encouraged such a practice. In fact, his connection with the library has usually begun and ended with the signing of an agreement by the city authorities and the setting apart of a sum from which the bills for erecting the structure are to be paid, up to the stipulated amount. Mr. Carnegie has certainly received ample advertisement from the public, but he has done nothing to favor it; and it is rather difficult to see how a man could give away an amount equivalent to a dozen large fortunes without attracting some public notice.

The whole business has been carried on very systematically. It was to be expected that the donor would be overwhelmed with demands for aid in library construction. These he has expected, and apparently welcomed. His intention seems to be to give aid wherever proof is forthcoming that it will be properly bestowed. He grants no interviews to applicants, but refers them all to his secretary, who receives and investigates all properly authenticated requests. At intervals—not so frequent as many persons suppose—Mr. Carnegie goes over the requests and decides what shall be done regarding them. Those who picture the great library giver as pondering by night and day over the locations of buildings or over architects' plans or methods of administration are far afield. Probably a day or two annually may sum up the time devoted by him personally to these huge benefactions, and it is fortunate for the library world that this is so. Mr. Carnegie presses the button that releases his stream of library millions; the trustees and librarians

that are most interested do the rest. The millionaire ironmaster is said to be proud of his ability to select and use men; he has certainly done so to the best effect in his library benefactions.

It is doubtful whether any public library is in a position to announce that it has no further need of gifts, no matter how generously it may be treated in the matter of appropriations. There are always expenses that it is not legitimate or expedient to pay from the public funds and that are properly defrayable from the proceeds of donations. The New York Public Library, an institution possessed of a large private income and receiving besides an appropriation of over half a million dollars yearly from the city, sends out every year a printed request for gifts of money, which it expends for various purposes, chiefly for the decoration of branch libraries, potted plants, and the like. In addition, it has begun the formation of local committees of ladies, one for each branch library, to advise in all matters pertaining to the appearance of the branches, to raise funds, if possible, and to assist in spending them to advantage. There is always in every community a large reservoir of public spirit that may be drawn upon in this way, and that might be wasted if advantage were not taken of it. It may be turned to the advantage of the library in some such way as this, and the flow thus directed, though it may be but a trickle, will possibly determine a flood at some later time. Nothing is so undesirable as a general feeling in a locality that private generosity is out of place when bestowed on any institution supported chiefly by public taxation. A club, which is supported by dues levied on all the members, would never think for this reason of refusing the gift of a new house, or a fresh

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stock of books for its library, from some wealthy member, nor would it turn back a loan exhibition of paintings or objects of historical interest. The same would be true of a church; and it should also be true of a municipality. I recall no case, except in connection with some of Mr. Carnegie's and other similar offers, where a town has actually refused gifts or has officially announced its reluctance to receive them; but there is certainly a widespread feeling on the part of citizens that when anything is supported from the public purse private effort to aid it may properly cease.

This was very strikingly exemplified in New York when the various private corporations operating public circulating libraries in certain boroughs of that city united to form the Circulation Department of the New York Public Library.

These corporations, though receiving small subsidies from the city, were supported very largely by annual membership fees, voluntary contributions, and the income from endowment by bequest or gift. After their consolidation with the Public Library the stated annual dues were, of course, discontinued, contributions by gift fell to about ten per cent of the former amount, and during the period since consolidation (1901) no additions to the endowment fund have been received, except from bequests made prior to the consolidation. The cause of this discontinuance of private aid is undoubtedly a feeling that the assurance of a definite income from the public funds renders it unnecessary.

CHAPTER XVI

THE LIBRARY AS A PRODUCER

IN a Public Library branch in the city of New York a boy who had sought in vain for the book he wanted was told that the only remaining copy had worn out, and that it could not be replaced because it was out of print. "Well," he replied, unabashed, "can't you print it again?" That boy was ahead of the age, in library matters; but the library may some day overtake him. Indeed, it is hard to see why a library already possessing a fully equipped printing office should not buy the plates of some standard work of fiction which it is obliged to replace at a fairly uniform annual rate and strike off for itself a supply sufficient for a few years, sending the sheets to be put into strong binding, precisely as it now does the sheets obtained (when it is able to get them) from the publisher. This is a possibility of the future. In the meantime some libraries are conducting a fairly good publishing business, and many more are doing their own job printing; while librarians in co-operation, organized as the Publishing Board of the American Library Association, are issuing books of the greatest value to the work of libraries.

The publications most commonly issued by libraries are periodicals, variously named, but most often called bulletins, and usually monthlies. These contain generally the names of the board of trustees, rules and regu-

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lations, hours of opening, a classified list of additions made during the month, lists of books on special subjects, and sometimes library news of local, or even of general, interest. In addition, some libraries use their bulletins for the publication, from time to time, of manuscript material in their possession that may be of interest to scholars, or even to the general public—unpublished correspondence, diaries, papers of all kinds, and the like. Probably the use of such a publication as a catalogue of current additions is the most common and is most widely regarded as its chief function. If linotype composition is used, the slugs may be saved and used again for a more comprehensive list. Some libraries that print their own catalogue cards make the bulletin entries in such shape that the slugs can be used at once for the cards. In one case at least, that of the New York Public Library, several such bulletins are published. The Bulletin of the New York Public Library contains a monthly report of the library's activities; long classified and annotated lists of some special collections or classes of books in the library, a brief list of noteworthy additions to the reference department, and acknowledgments to donors. The Branch Library News, formerly the Monthly List of Additions to the Circulation Department, is devoted to a broadly classified author list of additions, with brief annotations, supplemented occasionally by a short list on some special subject and by reading-matter of various kinds intended for branch-users. The Bulletin is sent only to subscribers; the News is distributed free at branch libraries. The Municipal Branch has a bulletin of its own and there is also The Staff News for assistants only.

Another common type of library publication is the

catalogue, entire or partial—nowadays more often the latter. As noted in the chapter on Cataloguing, complete printed catalogues are not often issued, but partial catalogues, finding lists, short bibliographies, lists of special collections, and the like, are becoming more frequent. Very nearly all libraries, large and small, issue an annual printed report, as noted in the chapter on Statistics. This may be the briefest kind of a tabular statement, or it may contain a very large amount of descriptive text, often with illustrations. The readableness of this depends not only on the librarian's aim in preparing it, but also, of course, on his ability as a writer.

Large libraries often publish handbooks or descriptive pamphlets, under one name or another, giving a brief historical sketch of the institution, a description of its building or buildings, its rules, the organization of its board and of its staff, and so on. These naturally vary in contents and in method of treatment. Sometimes it is thought best to distribute information of this kind over several small pamphlets instead of gathering it in one large one. Sometimes the rules and customs of the library in matters of detail are printed and issued in the same way for distribution among the members of the staff. For the handbook or its equivalent a small price is usually charged.

As noted in the chapter on Reference Libraries, a very large proportion of what may be called the books of secondary information are compiled from sources found in libraries. Except in a few instances, however, librarians have not been the compilers of these, nor have the libraries themselves been their producers. There seems, however, to be no reason why a library containing interesting material should not proceed to utilize it

THE LIBRARY AS A PRODUCER

in this way instead of waiting for some casual outsider to do so. The occupant of a university chair is expected to spend much of his time in original research; and if he produces anything of value, the university publishes it. In like manner, we may see, in future, the librarian of a large library devoting some of his time, as a matter of course, to compilation and authorship, using the materials in his own institution, with which he naturally is, or ought to be, more familiar than anyone else. When he produces something of permanent value, the library will publish it. In this way the public library may regain something of the regard for scholarship which it has inevitably lost by giving its attention so exclusively to popular administrative problems.

Something of this sort is occasionally done even now. The publication of valuable manuscript material in library magazines has already been mentioned. There is also the kind of work now being done by the Free Library of Newark, N. J., which is publishing, in parts, a complete description of the operation of its various departments, for the information and assistance of librarians in other institutions. Librarians themselves are frequently authors; they contribute freely to the technical periodical literature of their profession. Work in bibliography is also usually by them, although extensive and thorough work of this sort is not as common here as abroad, and is more commonly done in university or special libraries than in the public libraries that have devoted so much of their time to the organization and extension of popular service. Work in general literature is more apt to be that of retired librarians, or, if done during library service, it is performed out of library hours, and is not regarded as part of the legitimate task

LIBRARIANS AS AUTHORS

of the librarian. Such works as Justin Winsor's "Narrative and Critical History," Larned's "History for Ready Reference," Poole's "Index" with Fletcher's continuations, the systems of classification of Dewey and Cutter, the "Library Reprints" of Dana and Kent, Koopman's "Mastery of Books," and many others, are testimony to the industry with which librarians have pursued this kind of work.

There is one class of printing that it will pay a small library to do—namely, that of stock stationery, such as letterheads, envelopes, users' cards, pockets, book plates, and the like. No composition is needed for any of these, and, after the library has paid to have the proper electrotype plate made, all that is needed is a small hand press, which may be operated by unskilled labor. Much of this work may also be done with the multigraph with which it is now possible to use electrotype plates.

CHAPTER XVII

BINDING AND REPAIRING

THE annual cost of a thing that is in continual use, and that will ultimately be worn out by such use and require replacement, is made up of interest, expense of maintenance and repair, and the year's share of a fund for replacing the article when worn out. This is quite familiar in the case of machinery, but it has only recently been applied to books, because only in the modern circulating library has the book been necessarily regarded as a tool to be well used, worn out, and replaced. When this idea has impressed itself sufficiently on the mind, we realize the necessity of putting all our discussions of the cost of books into the form of cost per unit of time or of service rather than that of initial outlay simply. The total cost of a volume is its initial cost plus all outlay for mending and rebinding until it is discarded as worn out. Its cost per year may be obtained by dividing this by the number of years of service, and the cost per issue by using as the divisor the total number of issues during this time. Interest on the original outlay should strictly be added, but as books are usually bought from income and are not regarded as a permanent investment, this may be omitted. Evidently, with the same initial outlay and the same cost of repair, the cost per year or per issue may be made less by prolonging the life of the book or increasing the number of

COST OF A BOOK

issues possible before it wears out; and it will evidently pay to increase the initial outlay if by so doing the life of the book is more than proportionately increased. To know whether increased outlay will pay and, if so, to obtain effective results with it—these two things are the problems that the librarian must solve, so far as binding is concerned, in an active circulating library of the modern type. The problem of annual cost is complicated by the fact that to make the book strong at the outset will often not only prolong its life, but will do away with rebinding during that life.

Supposing, for simplicity's sake, that rebinding and mending are eliminated, making the annual cost of the book simply the initial outlay divided by the number of years of its life, evidently any increase in first cost will be justifiable that increases the life proportionately. Such increase in first cost is due to money put into better paper and stronger binding, especially stouter sewing and stronger joints. Such improvements, however, do not lengthen the book's life, or do not lengthen it proportionately to what they cost, when the inside of the book is short-lived for any reason, or when it is exceptionally long-lived. Thus the best edition obtainable may be in very bad paper—so brittle or so flimsy that the best sewing and the most durable covers will not greatly retard its going to pieces; or the short life of the interior may be due not to poor materials, but to exceptionally hard wear, or to abuses in the handling of the book. Its users may be ignorant or careless, and the leaves may be soon so torn or soiled that it must be withdrawn from circulation, no matter how stout the sewing or how durable the leather. On the other hand, the book may be one that is to receive very little wear. It may

BINDING AND REPAIRING

go out regularly but very infrequently—perhaps once a year—and its normal life may therefore be so long that a mere increase in the durability of binding would not greatly lengthen it.

Between these two extremes lie the cases in which initial outlay for increased strength leads to a proportionately lengthened life, and is therefore economically justifiable—namely, those where the book is of good paper and is to have hard, steady, legitimate use from readers who understand how to handle it. The ideal in each case is, of course, to have the book and its binding wear out together, so that neither shall the former require rebinding nor shall any remaining strength of the latter be wasted. The perfect adaptation of binding to book, so that the parts of both shall wear out like those of the “one-hoss shay,”

“All at once and nothing first,
Just as bubbles do when they burst,”

is the problem to be solved. That it is capable only of approximate solution, except by accident, is evident, but its statement at least provides a star to which the librarian may hitch his wagon. The best calculations may be upset by intrusting the subject of these calculations for a brief period to an inquisitive infant or a playful puppy, or by dropping it in the mud or spilling ink over it.

But supposing that the librarian is gifted with sufficient insight and foresight to determine exactly what outlay for initial strength will pay in each case, he must then rely on the binder to impart precisely the required degree, and here he meets another obstacle that has been very imperfectly dealt with. The amount and kind of

THE BINDER

usage to which a book is subjected in the modern public library has not been realized by any binder until very recently; and even now it is understood by few. The artistic side of binding has been developed far more than what may be called its engineering. Beautiful bindings have been many; strong commercial bindings, in the sense in which we must now speak of strength, are few. Still less have binders learned to grade the strength of their work so as to adapt it to the probable life of the inside of the book, as noted above. To begin with the publisher, it is to his interest to issue his edition all in the same form, and this form is governed by the use to which the book is to be put by the majority of purchasers, who are individual readers, not public libraries. The books are thus put together very lightly. Even where the libraries desire to purchase in unbound sheets and have the binding done to suit them, the publisher is often unwilling to sell in this form. There is nothing for it, then, but to buy in the publisher's cases and strengthen them in some way; or tear the book apart and rebind strongly at once; or put it into circulation as it is, rebinding when it falls apart. No one of these three alternatives is desirable. Publishers often profess their willingness to bind strongly a certain proportion of their issues for public-library use, and this is now done in an increasing number of cases, owing largely to the efforts of the Committee on Bookbinding appointed by the American Library Association. A very few binders have made an effort to arrange with certain publishers to deliver sheets to them in time to bind strongly before publication. There is at the present time, however, no one publisher from whom libraries may obtain, in strong binding, any of his publications that they may deem to

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require it, and no one dealer or binder who is able to furnish all current books in this way. The problem is evidently complicated with that of the book trade. The dealer who is to engage to furnish any current publication, bound strongly from the sheets, on the day of issue must be himself a binder competent to deal with the question or he must have very close relations with such a binder. Either because libraries in general have not realized the economy of strong binding or because dealers do not understand the advantages to them of being the first to take it up in different localities, it is still difficult to obtain just what is wanted, promptly and surely.

The problem of "strong binding," which, as has been said above, means here the problem of so fastening a book together that it will not come apart under the unusual stress of use in a free public library, is, of course, one of machine binding. Libraries cannot afford to pay the prices that must be charged for good hand work. The points of special weakness are the sewing and the joint of the cover. When the binding of a library book gives out, the stitching comes apart, or the leaves tear away from the threads, or the cover-joint breaks. It is not intended here to discuss the merits of various methods of sewing and jointing, but it is necessary to point out that with the kinds of paper in modern use for book work it is impossible to adopt any one style of sewing. The method that would be the best for strong paper made of linen rags would not suit light, spongy paper of esparto grass or the brittle paper made of wood pulp; nor, again, the paper heavily coated with an earthy glaze for taking the ink from the half-tone plates. The good binder, therefore, must make a special study

of papers in current use, and must know at a glance what treatment is best for each. Separate from the question of strong binding, but even more necessary to consider when the readability of a book is to be regarded, is the ease with which it opens, which depends almost entirely on the sewing. A book sewed strongly, but difficult to hold open, is hard to read, especially when held in one hand; and the modern library, which aims to make reading easy for all, should not put such an obstacle as this in the way of its users. If the paper of a book is of such a nature that it can be held strongly together only by making the book hard to open, it is better in many cases—perhaps in the majority—to let considerations of strength go altogether. The library in this case is paying extra for the comfort of its readers.

So far as the material of the cover is concerned, this (which is the first thing that the ordinary reader thinks of when he hears of “binding”) is of secondary importance where the book is to receive heavy wear and is soon to be worn out and replaced. In this case the main qualities that are to be looked to are reasonable durability and cleanliness—smoothness, so that dirt will not be caught or collected and waterproof quality of a degree sufficient to admit of moderate washing. Heavy but flexible leather, such as pigskin, for the backs and waterproof cloth for the sides fulfill these conditions. Binding of this kind may be had for about fifty cents for a 12mo volume; or for less, if full cloth be used, with some modification in the sewing. Those who can afford it will have the backs lettered in gilt, and the call number will be added in the same way. If necessary, however, the lettering may be put on in ink with a pen, using India ink for light-colored bindings and “white

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ink," so called, for the dark ones. "Gold ink" is effective but not durable. Cloth or paper labels, used by many libraries, are difficult to fasten firmly and show dirt plainly.

A consideration that militates against strong bindings in many libraries, and that will have to be reckoned with more and more by binders in the future, is the fact that the appearance of books strongly bound from the sheets is apt to be rather unattractive. A study of colors in leathers and cloth, and the adoption of some simple forms of decoration, will do away largely with this objection; and steps in this direction are now being taken by some binders. Objections of this kind are not so trivial as they may seem. Not only is the general appearance of a library's shelves more cheerful and attractive when the colors and decoration of the bindings are varied tastefully, but especially in a children's room is it desirable to give a book character to the outward eye in this way. Many librarians thus prefer, especially in the case of books for children, to have the original bindings strengthened or reinforced in some way rather than to bind the original sheets strongly at the risk of the book's losing its individuality. This may be done by replacing the original case after resewing or, in some cases, by merely strengthening the joint.

The warning given at the beginning of this chapter cannot be too strongly reiterated—namely, that whether the time and expense devoted to initial strong binding is to be an economy or a waste depends on the skill and judgment shown in selecting the books that are to receive such treatment. In the case of replacements, especially of standard books in constant demand, a list of titles requiring strong initial binding should be pre-

pared and the best editions for the purpose should be specified. Orders for replacements or duplicates may then be compared and checked up with this list before they are placed. With current publications the task is not so easy, and involves far more chance of mistake. It is, however, safe to say that popular fiction, or in general any book that would require replacement or re-binding if it were not put initially in strong binding, should receive the latter. Among the exceptions will be such books for children as will probably be needed in the original covers and most fiction duplicates that will last as long as the book's popularity. When twelve copies of a novel are bought, for instance, the probability is that by the time they have worn out one or two will be sufficient to supply the demand, and only these need to be bound strongly at the outset. Cases where the binding depends on the quality of paper cannot now be determined in advance of publication. These could be taken into consideration if publishers, in advance notices, would clearly state the kind of paper to be used, the style and size of type, width of margins, manner of inserting illustrations, and other data that are of special value for the librarian's information.

What has been said so far applies wholly to the original binding. But "binding," stated as an item in library expenses, generally refers to rebinding, the amount spent for original binding being reckoned as part of the cost of the book. This item of rebinding it should be the librarian's task to reduce as much as possible. The fact that a book has to be rebound is generally an indication that it should have been provided with a stronger initial binding. If it were possible to attain the ideal of perfect adaptation of initial binding to use,

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rebinding might be abolished. As this is impossible, it must continue, but it should be reduced to a minimum. In many cases it is cheaper to replace than to rebind. The criterion, as in the case of strong original binding, is not the relative cost of rebinding and replacement, but the cost per issue as affected by one or the other. Suppose that a book, after twenty issues, is in need of rebinding, which makes it good for ten issues more. The book is thus good altogether for thirty issues, and if it is replaced with a new copy which is similarly treated, the two have sixty issues between them. Now, three copies, without rebinding, would have the same number of issues; and if the cost of a copy would not be greater than that of the two rebindings, this plan would pay. The numbers given above have been chosen somewhat arbitrarily, and varying them will alter the conclusion.¹

Thus, if a good cheap edition may be had, replacement may be the wiser course in a case where it would

¹ This may be stated algebraically as follows:

If A = first cost of book,

N = number issues before rebinding,

a = cost of rebinding,

n = number of issues after rebinding,

then the condition for substituting replacement for rebinding is $\left(\frac{A+a}{N+n}\right) < \left(\frac{A}{N}\right)$. If $A : N :: a : n$ the two fractions will be equal, and inequality will subsist in the desired sense if the cost of rebinding is increased or the number of issues after rebinding be decreased; or if (these remaining the same) the first cost be decreased or the corresponding number of issues be increased. In the case of initial strong binding, A is greatly increased but N is also generally increased more than proportionately, which explains why initial strong binding is usually an economy. To those who desire to use this formula in practice, it may be said that while A and a are determinate quantities, N and n are averages ascertained by a series

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be better to rebind if the only good edition were an expensive one. Also, if a form of rebinding is available that will make the book good for a number of reissues far greater, proportionately to the cost, than the number of original issues, this may and should determine the course to be pursued.

Nothing has been said of a second rebinding because, although this is sometimes possible, it is rarely desirable. Of course, other considerations, just as in the case of original strong binding, may operate to influence the librarian's conclusion in regard to rebinding. Books are discarded for other reasons than because the bindings are worn. If a book, for instance, is so soiled that it will probably have to be cast aside for that reason after two or three more issues, rebinding is evidently inadvisable, and the book should be slightly repaired, if possible, or otherwise discarded at once.

It has been assumed that immediate replacement at a fair price is possible—that is, that the book is in print. In general, it does not pay to include out-of-print books in the actively circulating stock. If the book is a valuable copy for the reference shelves, or is kept for "museum" purposes, and is difficult or impossible to replace, it may then, of course, be necessary to spend comparatively large sums in strengthening, protecting, and preserving it.

In this discussion one other factor has not yet been taken into account—the time lost while the book is undergoing rebinding. Of course, if we consider only the

of trials, the more the better. Those to whom this algebraic discussion means little may at least understand from it that the determination of economies in binding, whether initial or rebinding, is a matter requiring both thought and calculation.

cost per issue of the individual book, there is no loss, no matter how long it lies idle, as the total number of ultimate issues will be the same. The loss appears, however, if we consider the number of copies necessary to carry on the work of the library. If this number, we will say, is twenty in a given case, and if five copies are always in the binder's hands, the actual number of copies owned by the library must evidently be twenty-five. Possibly ten per cent of a library's stock must be rebound in the course of the year, or say 6,000 volumes in a stock of 60,000. If these are absent, on an average, four months each, the loss amounts to a permanent abstraction of 2,000 of the library's most needed books, which must be replaced by others if the efficiency of the library is to be maintained. If the average life of these books is ten years, and their cost during this period, including purchase, cataloguing, rebinding, etc., is \$1.50 each—a low estimate—the time lost at the binder's is costing the library \$300 yearly, the interest at five per cent of an investment of \$6,000. If the binder keeps the books but one month each, this loss is only \$75 a year; in other words, the binder's promptness is saving the library \$225 a year.

The more we look into the question the more it appears desirable to abolish rebinding as far as possible and to reduce to a minimum the time occupied in performing the work on the necessary residue.

The judgment required in selecting books from the stock for rebinding and discarding is very great. This task should be intrusted to an assistant of experience and, as far as possible, always to the same person. Especially in a branch system should this work be under competent general supervision, otherwise the librarian may

find that he is discarding fairly usable books from one branch and retaining in circulation at another volumes far more soiled or advanced in disintegration. Users of the library who pass from branch to branch will be quick to note and comment upon such discrepancies. Of course, the state of a library's finances must determine the extent to which a book shall be allowed to go to pieces before it is rebound or discarded and the degree to which it shall be allowed to accumulate dirt before being adjudged too filthy for library use. There is a zone within which a book may be called "worn out" or "soiled," or the reverse, according to circumstances; but no matter how impecunious a library may be, it cannot afford to circulate books that are really dirty or falling to pieces. The use of dirty books is objectionable for other than sanitary reasons; it drives from the library people who love cleanliness, and it renders ineffective any action taken by the library toward improving the care taken of its stock. It is useless, for instance, to insist on clean hands in a children's room, if a large proportion of the books are so soiled that a person with clean hands might properly object to handling them. So, also, it seems absurd to caution readers against tearing out one more piece from a volume whose leaves are hanging in tatters or against maltreating a binding that is already hanging by a single thread.

Books not in good condition may often be mended instead of rebound. Much has been said of how to mend; not enough, probably, on when to mend. In general, mending is desirable only when the book is not to be rebound. When its initial binding is strong enough to last till the end, the repair will naturally be limited to mending tears, removing dirt, or fastening in plates. When

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the book is in too bad condition to warrant rebinding, but not too bad to warrant repair—a condition whose determination requires delicate judgment—almost anything may be done to it that suits the fancy of the mender, but elaborate work rarely pays, except with “museum” books. The sewing may be repaired, glue may be spread over the backs, joints may be reënforced or replaced, and so on. Mending cannot be taught from a book; to be an expert mender, one must first thoroughly understand the anatomy of the bound volume, must be quick to appreciate whether any mending at all will pay in a given case, and must then be able to know what to do to accomplish the desired result with the greatest speed and strength. The mending should be intrusted to assistants who show aptitude for it; but the person who selects the books to be mended and decides what shall be done to them is not necessarily the one who does the actual mending. Manual dexterity does not always accompany a keen eye and trained judgment. In the New York Public Library, library books for mending are selected in each branch by the same assistant and at the same time as those for rebinding and for discarding, and the selection is reviewed, and sometimes modified, by the Supervisor of Binding. An instructor of mending is a member of the library staff, and spends all her time in going from branch to branch, teaching the assistants the elements of book anatomy and how to apply them in the simplest kinds of repairing.

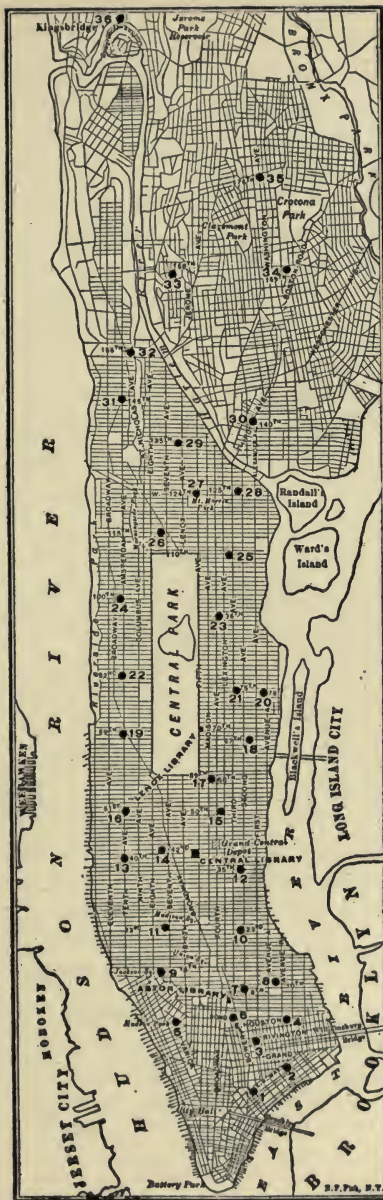
CHAPTER XVIII

BRANCHES AND STATIONS

THE need of supplementing the work of a library in a large city by subsidiary agencies scattered over its territory was felt early in library history. Such agencies are of three general types—the branch library, the distributing station, and the delivery station. The branch library is a complete library in itself, having its separate quarters, often a beautiful and convenient building; its own permanent stock of books, generally its own catalogues, and sometimes its own separate list of registered borrowers. The distributing station has a stock of books, but not a permanent one, the books being sent out from a central point and exchanged for others when needed. The stock, in short, constitutes a traveling library, and stations of this sort are dealt with in detail in the chapter on Traveling Libraries. A delivery station is a place where orders may be left for books to be delivered later from a central stock. Evidently these plans may be combined in various ways. The branch library may serve as a delivery station for the central collection or for the combined stock of other branches (interbranch loan); an emergency demand in a branch may be met by a temporary deposit of books, making it a distributing station so far as these are concerned; a distributing or delivery station may have certain branch features, such as a small permanent collection, generally of reference books, or a general reading room.

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Twenty years ago there was considerable difference of opinion among librarians about these three kinds of distributing agencies, and certain libraries adopted some one of them as preferable, to the exclusion of others. Thus the public libraries in Chicago and Jersey City developed large systems of delivery stations; the Free Library of Philadelphia established a system of branches, and so on. Other libraries, like those of Boston and Pittsburgh, established both branches and delivery stations. At present the true branch has come to be regarded as preferable, except in special cases. Delivery stations are used only as adjuncts and where the circulation would not warrant the expense of a branch. Even here deposit stations, or traveling libraries, are now generally used. That the public prefers branch libraries there can be no doubt. This may be seen in cases where they are combined with delivery stations, as they are wherever orders may be left at a branch for books from the central library or from other branches. In such cases the use of the branch collection greatly exceeds that of the other collections through the branch. For instance, in the New York Public Library, a branch circulating a thousand books a day from its own shelves may have perhaps ten daily calls for books in other branches. In other words, its use as a branch is 100 times as great as its delivery-station use. The discrepancy appears even greater if we compare the demand with the number of books available in the two cases. The forty branches of the New York Public Library contained in 1909 about 600,000 books. If we suppose the branch cited above to contain 25,000 volumes, the daily branch circulation was four per cent, whereas the delivery circulation was less than $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 per cent.



DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC-LIBRARY BRANCHES IN MANHATTAN AND BRONX BOROUGH, NEW YORK CITY. (1909).

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This preference of the reading public for books on the shelves was stated analogically by a New York journalist, who remarked that a hungry man "would rather have cold beef now than chicken to-morrow." It must be confessed, however, that in this case the delivery circulation is of higher quality than the other, representing in a greater proportion of cases the satisfaction of a definite desire; and doubtless the delivery station will find its future place as a substitute or adjunct agency of distribution.

In some cities systems of branch libraries, instead of being planned as aids to the work of a central library, have arisen where no such library exists—branches without a parent stem. Such was the case in New York and in Brooklyn. In some instances branches serve regions so rural, or so far distant from the municipal center, that they take on the appearance and functions almost of independent local libraries rather than of adjuncts to the work of the main institution. Methods of administration in such a system of libraries will obviously differ according to the degree of centralization. Most administrators will agree that each branch should be allowed a degree of independence, but no two would probably draw the line in the same place. At one extreme would be the perfectly centralized system where the headwork is all done at headquarters and the branch librarians are only assistants in charge, having no liberty of action and performing the details of their work by prescribed rule. Such branches would perform separately only such functions as were positively necessary to their usefulness as libraries; they would have, for instance, separate catalogues, but no separate accession records or registration books. All administrative functions would be

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performed at the central office, matters of policy would be arranged there down to the smallest detail, and the personnel of the staff would be decided upon there without consulting the local assistant in charge.

At the other extreme we should have the practically independent branch, operated as a separate library, except for a common board of trustees and executive officer. Its librarian would appoint her own force, and all administrative functions would be performed in the branch, which might differ from all the other branches in its charging system, its classification, its system of registration, and so on.

These ideal extremes are cited for purposes of illustration only; probably neither of them exists. The ordinary system of branches is centralized in some respects and independent in others. Most systems agree in centralizing the purchase of books, staff training, cataloguing (at least the headwork), and in prescribing uniformity in charging systems, book numbers, and such rules as affect the use of the books by the public. They generally allow independence to some extent in book selection, in branch discipline, and the selection of assistants, and in various points of local policy. The branch librarian is the local adviser of the librarian in chief, in matters affecting her locality. Points on which there is a general difference of usage, some librarians preferring centralization and uniformity, while others would allow independence and the exercise of local discretion, are accessioning, the mechanical copying of catalogue cards, registration, and the issuing of borrowers' cards.

The differences between the work of a system of branch libraries and that of a single independent library

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may perhaps be best treated by viewing them successively from three standpoints—that of the individual assistant, that of the central administrator, and that of the public.

From the assistant's point of view the differences are absent or slight in the lower grades and increase as she rises in the staff. To one of the lower assistants it makes very little difference whether the rules under which she works are laid down by the head of her immediate library or are merely transmitted to her, through that head, from a central headquarters, more or less remote. To the head librarian, on the other hand, it makes a great deal of difference whether she is free to administer her library as she thinks best, under her board of trustees, or whether she is forced to conform to rules and customs in common with a number of other similar libraries. If her library is a branch, her charging system, her rules regarding the public use of books, her registration system, and all the other administrative features that are to be uniform in all the branches, are settled upon for her and cannot be changed; whereas, if she is at the head of a single independent institution, she may, theoretically at least, change or modify all these to suit herself. Practically, however, the difference is not so great as it seems. On assuming charge of an independent library its head often finds systems of classification, registration, charging, cataloguing, and so on, that do not accord with her ideas; yet in most cases the labor of alteration would be so great that she is quite as much bound to retain them as if they were prescribed by a central office. Then, again, the head of an independent library is responsible to the board of trustees; in a branch, the responsibility is merely transferred to a sin-

SOME COMPARISONS

gle officer. The branch librarian's books and supplies must be obtained by recommendation or requisition through the central office, and repairs to her building must be made in the same way. In all this there is apt to be more delay than where it may be done more directly. The testimony of those who have served both as independent and as branch librarians, and especially of those whose libraries, formerly independent, have become parts of a branch system of consolidation, indicates that this loss of freedom, of individual responsibility and initiative is considerable; that it is felt as a drawback, and that the efficiency of the library is lessened thereby. Yet, in spite of this, such librarians will usually add that the compensating advantages are great enough to make up for this disadvantage—perhaps far to outweigh it. Such advantages are the fact that the library may place at the disposal of its users a very much larger stock of books, that the librarian has the coöperation of many sister institutions and the advice and aid of experts in many special lines of library work, that much of the mechanical work is assumed by the central office, leaving the branches freer to study and consult the needs of their users—in short, they embrace all the benefits that arise from coöperation, but that are rarely realized in their entirety unless the coöperation is systematized and under central direction and control.

From the standpoint of the central administrator, the differences between operating a single library and a group of branches are even greater. His catalogue and shelf list, for instance, must bear, besides everything that would be necessary in the similar records of a single library, some indication of the branches in which the catalogued books are to be found. His accounts must be

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kept in such a way that the cost of operating each branch library may be separately ascertained, and to this end his bills must be so marked that it may be possible to divide the totals properly among the branches concerned. Take, for instance, the complications introduced into the one department of book purchase. For an independent library, the purchase of a given title having been duly authorized, it is necessary simply to order it, retaining a memorandum of the order; to compare the book, when received, with this memorandum and with the bill, marking them both to indicate receipt, and then to deliver the book to be catalogued, prepared, and shelved. In a branch system the office must know before ordering the book for what branch it is intended; and on its receipt it is not sufficient simply to check the corresponding item in the bill. The item must be marked with the name of the branch, so that the bill clerk may charge each branch with the fraction of the total that may belong to it. The book itself must be marked with the name of the branch, and also, if it is to be accessioned at the branch, with certain data not shown by the book itself, as the source and price. After cataloguing, the book must be sent, with others, to the branch for which it is intended, and some evidence of its receipt must be returned to the central office and filed there. If a book is lost, it is difficult to fix the responsibility between the central office, the express messenger, and the receiving branch without a very elaborate system of dated receipts, which may or may not be thought worth while. But in any case, the fact that a group of branches instead of a separate library is to be supplied multiplies the work at the book-order office very greatly; and there is a similar multiplication, due to the same causes,

SOME COMPARISONS

in almost every department of central-office work. Again, it becomes necessary for the head of the system to determine, in the case of every rule or regulation that he may desire to make, of every custom that he may wish to alter, and of every innovation or improvement that he may consider necessary, whether this is of the kind that should apply uniformly throughout the system or whether it may be allowed to apply to certain branches and not to others. If the latter, he must decide to which it should apply; if the former, he must inquire whether its inapplicability at some branches may not make its adoption generally undesirable. This information may generally be best obtained by conference with the heads of branches, at such a meeting as that described in the chapter on the Staff.

Lastly, from the point of view of the public—that is, of those who use the library—the differences between a branch and an independent library are almost all in favor of the former. The user has all the privileges that he could have with the latter and others that he would not be likely to receive. He has access to the stock not of one library alone, but to the combined collections of the whole system. Larger resources in every way are at his disposal. The library is much more apt to buy a book that he desires, if it is to be thereby made available to the population of a large region than if it is to be added simply to a moderate collection for the use of a small number of people. Those who wish traveling libraries or deposit collections can obtain them more readily and in greater numbers. In fact, the user finds at his disposal many of the resources and advantages of a large library, with the accessibility, coziness, and informality of a small one.

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From another point of view altogether, if there is question of concentrating all the available expenditures upon one large central library instead of devoting a part of it to branches, there can no longer be any doubt of the better course to pursue, if it is desired to benefit the largest possible number of persons. Scholars who must study the entire literature of their subject, wherever it may be, will travel long distances to see a particular book, even taking journeys to foreign countries for the purpose. For such, branch collections are neither necessary nor desirable. The ordinary reader, however, the man of fairly good education who reads for entertainment or for profit, will rarely go very far to get his book. His wife and his children will not go even as far as he will. To get and retain a hold upon such readers as this the collection must be brought closer to them, and this means that branch libraries must be placed at intervals throughout the city.

We may now take up some of the special problems of branch systems. In the first place, is there any rule governing the arrangement of branches in a city—their number in proportion to population, their distance apart, etc.? Such arrangement depends not on one, but on many considerations. In many cases certain points have been foreordained as branch locations, as from the location in such a spot of a previously independent library that has been taken in as a branch. Two or three badly fixed points of this kind may throw a whole branch system “out of kilter,” and yet the best policy may dictate their retention. In general, the number of branches should be roughly proportional to population, and yet, where population is much congested, spacing by this rule alone may bring branches too close together, and it may

ARRANGEMENT OF BRANCHES

be better to increase the capacity of a single branch than to multiply the number. The number of branches must also be roughly proportional to extent of territory; yet in sparsely settled parts of the community to follow this rule alone would result in wasting the resources of a branch on too small a number of users. Here it would be better to care for the needs of the residents by means of deposit collections, judiciously placed. The character of the locality must always have much influence in determining the location of a branch. A branch should always be located in the center of a group of users rather than on its edge. Sometimes the disposition of such a group may be determined beforehand, sometimes not. Thus it is certainly bad policy to place a branch on the edge of an unpopulated region, as a sheet of water, a large park, or, generally speaking, a purely business district. It has been thought that business districts, to which large numbers of persons resort daily either as buyers or as sellers, form the best locations for branch libraries; but this has not generally proved to be the case. The persons who resort to such districts do so with a definite purpose in mind, and rarely have the desire or the time to visit a library. On the other hand, libraries in residence districts are always largely used. A branch library in New York, established in the busiest part of the shopping district, on Sixth Avenue, where hundreds of thousands of persons passed the door daily, had a small circulation. Moved west, on Twenty-third Street, still in a business district, but a little out of the rush, its circulation improved, and when it was moved again, farther west, to a residence district, where not one tenth as many persons passed the door, the circulation rose again perceptibly. Again, a

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down-town library past whose door factory workers surge twice a day has never been able to secure a large circulation, and, as far as has been ascertained, reaches few of these frequent passers-by; while half a mile east, in a tenement-house region, another branch is well-nigh swamped by its crowd of users. It is possible to reach factory hands in their places of work, but only through traveling libraries and with the aid of their employers.

Again, the attitude of the residents of a district toward the library, or toward reading in general, may be characteristic, and may determine the location or nonlocation of a branch among them. In general, racial characteristics are important; the Irish, for instance, do not care to read as much as Germans do. It is difficult to induce the Latin races, even those who are readers, to use a public library, while the Teutonic races seek out the library for themselves. The attitude of religious teachers may be important. In regions where the inhabitants rely much upon the advice of their clergy, a prejudice against the public library existing in the minds of the clergy may practically do away with the usefulness of a branch in the locality.

Still again, most large cities, in the process of growth, have overtaken and swallowed up smaller centers, which still maintain for years, if not permanently, some of the characteristics of separate communities—a distinctive street system, perhaps; certain old landmarks, possibly post offices of their own, or railway stations, and above all a local pride that is stronger than any other influence in keeping up the atmosphere of separateness. Such local centers are of benefit rather than otherwise in a large city, for their existence fosters a healthy local pride, and this the presence of a library helps to maintain,

LOCAL CENTERS

while, in turn, it gives the people interest in the library and aids in making it useful. Such centers in New York for instance, are Harlem, Yorkville, Greenwich Village, and, more remote, Tremont, Woodlawn, and Kingsbridge; in Brooklyn, Bay Ridge, Bushwick, Brownsville, and Flatbush; in Philadelphia, Frankford, Germantown, and Chestnut Hill. All such places are promising locations for branch libraries, which may appropriately be given the names of these old centers. Besides these, there are other localities, which, although not old foci of population, are recognized as set apart in some way or other, as by topography, residential characteristics, etc., and have usually been given some popular local name. These, too, are often indicated as sites for branch libraries. Local demand should, of course, receive attention; but it is often misleading. A local movement for the establishment of a branch library may gain great headway and make much impression in a locality where local feeling is strong and population small; while in a densely populated district whose inhabitants are largely transients, with no traditions, the desire for a library may not crystallize so rapidly, although the need may be greater. I have known a branch library, established in a district where it had not been asked for, and where there was apparently no local interest in it, to develop at once a circulation of 30,000 a month, while in a semirural locality the inhabitants were clamoring loudly for a building and pointing with pride to a deposit station circulating 300 monthly as an evidence of their needs and abilities.

Some of the other special problems of branch-library administration have already been touched upon in the course of the present chapter. One or two more require

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brief mention. Is it desirable, for instance, to allow the same person to use more than one branch at a time? This question may be answered in several ways, of which the chief are as follows: (1) There may be no restriction; (2) each user may be restricted to one branch, or (3) each user may be allowed to use the branches indiscriminately, provided the total number of books that he holds at one time be not larger than that which he would be permitted to take from a single branch.

The first plan is the simplest and easiest, but the result is that those within reach of two or more branches may hold twice or thrice as many books at once as those who can conveniently reach only one. The number of the former, may not, however, exceed a few per cent of the total users, and many libraries regard the injustice arising from such absence of restriction as a lesser evil than the labor and time consumed in restricting each user to one library. Some libraries announce openly that each citizen is allowed to hold cards in as many branches as he chooses, while others say nothing about the matter, but make no effort to detect or prevent such multiple card-holding.

The second plan, that of strict limitation to one branch at a time, requires some sort of machinery to detect violation of the rule, although some libraries rely on the card-holder's personal statement, and content themselves with asking each applicant for library privileges whether he has had a borrower's card at another branch, and, if so, requiring him to present a formal request for transfer. If the card-holder's word be not regarded as sufficient, there must evidently be some place in which the names of users of all branches must be filed alphabetically, and each application must be compared

CENTRAL REGISTRATION

with this file before it is granted. If all applications are made, and all cards issued, by the central library, such a file exists there as a matter of course. A user bent on deceiving the library may, of course, do so in this case by giving a false name, unless a strict guaranty system is adhered to.

The third plan is the most logical of all; but it almost requires a central registration with central card issue. Each card is then good at whatever branch it is presented, and no one person can hold more than one card, or draw by means of it more than the allowed number of books, whatever their source. For small branch systems this involves no special trouble; but for large ones the central registration system involves some difficulties, especially with regard to the sending out of notices to delinquents. Either all branch notices must go out from the central office, which involves delay, as the evidence of delinquency is necessarily on file at the branch, or else each branch must keep a duplicate address file. Most of the advantages of this third plan, however, may be gained without a central registration by retaining the branch issue of cards, but requiring each branch to honor the cards of all other branches. This means that delinquencies must be reported to the issuing branch, which has the delinquent's address, or that a special address file shall be kept at each branch for the users of other branches whose cards have been honored.

This matter of delinquency, rather than the desirability of limiting the issue of books, is, after all, the chief reason for objecting to the holding of cards at more than one branch. Under this plan there is nothing to prevent a user's forfeiting the privileges of the library by debt or by nonreturn or maltreatment of

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books at a great number of branches successively, and this sometimes occurs. If it is to be prevented, a union black list must be kept at each branch. If this is to include the names of all those who owe fines, however small, it becomes unwieldy and practically impossible to use. Such a list is practically limited to the names of notable delinquents, which means that the lesser sinners go scot-free and are allowed to move about from branch to branch as they like.

The number and character of union catalogues is another problem of branch systems that admits of several solutions. Each branch needs its own card catalogue and its own shelf list, the former for the use of its readers and the latter for inventory. The central office needs a union catalogue and a union shelf list, both of which must bear record of the particular branches in which each book is contained. In addition, the shelf list may also indicate the number of copies in each branch. These data may be entered by means of numerals or abbreviations indicating the branches, which may be written on the author cards in the union catalogue and on the shelf-list cards, or opposite each entry on a shelf-list sheet. The indication of the number of copies may be by means of a superior numeral attached to the branch abbreviation. On the card devised by Miss Theresa Hitchler for the union shelf list of the Brooklyn Public Library the back of the card is divided into squares, each of which represents a branch, and the number of copies therein is indicated by their accession numbers (see illustration). As the number of copies is shown by the branch shelf lists and is easily ascertained therefrom when needed, it is not absolutely necessary to show it on the union list.

BRANCH CATALOGUES

Accession records may be kept at the branches separately, or in separate branch books at the central library,

42H	Marshall, W.H. and Johnston, E.L.				
M46	School composition, c1902.				
A. 11111	B. 111112 56342J	Am. 143261	Br. 143262	Bu. 143263	Ca



Cp. 143264	E.	F.	Ft.	N.	P.
S.	Sc.	Sr.	Tp.	W. 143266	T.
Se.	L.	R.	Sh.	M. 143265 943261R	
Wn.	Pa.	D.	Q.	Ma.	

UNION SHELF-LIST CARDS, USED IN THE BROOKLYN PUBLIC LIBRARY.
Both sides shown.

or in one union list at the central library. The last plan is the simplest in some ways and avoids work when there

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is to be much transferring of books among branches, but it is also desirable to have the record in the branch where the books are kept. Choice of method will depend largely on whether centralization or branch independence is favored in the particular library in question.

The same thing will determine also the place where the cataloguing is done. Complete centralization of the work necessitates a very large force, but comparatively few are required to keep up the necessary union lists, classify new books, and so mark them that they may be properly accessioned and catalogued at the branches. Such branch cataloguing may be done at odd moments, and its practice promotes familiarity with the books.

One of the greatest advantages of a system of branches is lost unless there is some method by which users may make use of other branches—that is, may borrow from the union stock as a whole. This necessitates a plan of some sort for interbranch loans. If every book likely to be in demand in this way can be transferred to the central library or duplicated therein, this reduces to a system for sending to the central library for books; but in a large, well-stocked branch system, especially where there has been specialization in purchase according to the needs of localities, there will always be books in branches that are not contained in the central library. A good interbranch loan system requires a union catalogue, an assistant, in charge of the system, who has immediate access to this catalogue and may communicate with all branches by telephone, and a messenger who visits all branches daily. An inquiry at a branch for a book not contained in that branch is referred at once to the central catalogue. If it is not in the library, the inquirer is so informed and a note is made for possible

INTERBRANCH LOANS

purchase. If it is, a reserve card is filed for it. If the book is not available at the central library, but is contained in one or more branches, the messenger as he goes his rounds takes with him a memorandum card, in a package of other cards, each of which bears the names of branches containing the book. The first branch where the book is on the shelves charges it to the inquiring branch and gives it to the messenger for delivery. If the book is out at all branches, a reserve card is filed at the last branch visited. Thus the book reaches the person who wants it, as soon as may be.

The branch system has developed so rapidly and individual branches have assumed so many of the features of independent libraries that users of such branches sometimes forget their limitations. It may happen that a person, accustomed to use a well-equipped central library in a small city, goes to a larger city where the central building is far away and there is a convenient branch. In such a case it is not infrequent to hear the branch library unfavorably compared with the institution formerly used. Such comparisons are obviously most unfair. In the first place, the book stock in a branch is and should be limited. It is not a place for unlimited book storage; it should contain a small, live, usable collection, and transfer all else to the central stock. Its reference collection must necessarily be small and adapted to the use of the inquirer after every-day items of knowledge rather than to the student and investigator. It will contain few, if any, Government documents; very limited collections in foreign literatures, unless there is a foreign colony in the immediate vicinity; practically no books on medicine, law, or technical subjects like the higher mathematics; no very large or ex-

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pensive books, such as costly art works. A city cannot and should not duplicate its central collection at a dozen or more points, and it is unreasonable to ask that it should go any further toward such duplication than may be done in a good usable collection of books for the ordinary local reader.

CHAPTER XIX

STATISTICS, REPORTS, ETC.

No business can be properly carried on without a system of accounts. These may involve only money received and expended, but they may and should extend much further. In a mercantile business they should be such that the proprietor may know whether he has made or lost money on a particular consignment of goods, or whether a particular lot has deteriorated in the warehouse before being disposed of. The manufacturer should be able to tell whether a given lot of raw material worked up into finished articles that are above or below the average in appearance, facility of operation, or wear. The collection and tabulation of such data as these have come to be regarded as indispensable by shrewd business men; and large corporations do not hesitate to spend considerable sums in employing a force of experts and clerks especially to gather data of this kind and to tell what they mean. On the information thus obtained is based the whole conduct of the business. It is found that material from a certain source gives uniformly poor results; this source is cut off, though offering an opportunity to buy cheaply. A certain line of goods is found not to pay, or not to pay as well as another line that might be produced with the same machinery; processes are at once modified or the plant is set at work in a different direction.

STATISTICS, REPORTS, ETC.

Information of this kind is gathered with either or both of two different purposes in view—to satisfy the legitimate curiosity of the person managing the business, or of some one who has a right to know how it is going on, whether it is succeeding or failing and just what it is accomplishing; and, secondly, to furnish a basis for improvements or changes, to indicate weak points and points of strength, so that the business may be reënforced along the former and extended along the latter.

The information is handled somewhat differently, according to the use that is to be made of it. If the former of the two uses just specified, it is thrown into the form of a tabular report, so that the person or persons to whom the report is submitted may be able to see with the least trouble just what is to be made plain with regard to the conduct of the business. If the latter, a more detailed and analytical study is made of the data, which are compared and tested in all possible ways to reveal unsuspected facts. When something is thus brought to light that seems to call for further investigation, additional data are collected; and processes, sources, machines, and operators are changed or shifted to ascertain the result of such action on the data that are being studied. In other words, the various operations of the business, whatever it may be, are treated precisely like the experimental part of a scientific investigation, and the data are discussed in a manner corresponding to the treatment of the measurements or other numerical data obtained in such an investigation.

The administration of various institutions, all of which are trying to achieve satisfactory results through methods carried out by men, with or without the aid of machinery, is one and the same, in essentials. Success

PURPOSES OF STATISTICS

and failure in all, whether their object is to make money for the proprietors or to perform a service for the public, are dependent on very similar factors. And if in large industrial concerns it has been found not only profitable but vital to collect data of all sorts and to discuss and act upon them, then we may be sure that the administration of a public library may profitably do the same thing in its own sphere of activity.

Libraries are accustomed to collect and publish varied statistics—more or less extensive and more or less detailed, according to the interests or habits of mind of the librarian or his board of trustees; but these are in general more in view of the first purpose specified above than for the second. They are, as signified by the name of the publication in which they usually appear, “reports”—the placing before the trustees, before the public, whom they represent, and before the municipal authorities to whom they are immediately responsible, of certain data, to assure them that the funds of the library have been wisely administered and that its users have obtained from the expenditure of those funds as much and as effective service as they have a right to expect.

Of the second kind of use mentioned above, there is probably not nearly so much as there ought to be. It is difficult to ascertain exactly how much, because investigations of this kind are intended to guide the administrator, and not to be published. Occasionally some outside body, representing citizens in another or a related capacity, undertakes a little investigation and comparison of this kind on its own account; and then the public is apt to hear of it. But how much intelligent study of library statistics goes on in librarians' offices, and how much modification or improvement in library methods

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and material results from such study, is something that we shall never know.

It appears to be certain, however, that large numbers of librarians, especially in small institutions or those of moderate size, look upon their statistics in the light of a necessary evil. They must be collected, because something of the kind is expected in the annual report, but they should be minimized, and, once in print, they should be dismissed from the mind. This attitude reminds one of the rural workman who used a dull saw because the amount of work before him gave him no time to stop and sharpen it; the labor of collecting and tabulating statistics wearies the average librarian to such an extent that he is unwilling to use his results in a way that might lighten his entire labor or direct it into channels of greater usefulness. Some of the simpler ways in which statistics may thus be treated will be indicated farther along in this chapter.

The data usually collected by libraries fall under three heads—financial statistics, or data regarding the receipt and expenditure of money; library statistics proper, or data about the books, their use and care; and statistics of property, relating to buildings and their contents.

Financial statistics are simply monetary accounts, and do not differ essentially in libraries from the book-keeping of any concern of equal size. A competent book-keeper, in other words, will learn as quickly how to keep the accounts of a library as he would how to keep those of any business with which he was at first somewhat unfamiliar. Of course, however, the financial statistics touch upon those of the other classes in so many points that, especially where all three kinds are to be systematically

studied, the bookkeeper will soon adapt his methods in such a way as to make such comparisons simpler. Thus, if the librarian wishes to know the proportion of fines to circulation in each of a dozen branch libraries, he must ascertain the receipts from this source and the number of books loaned, for the same period, in this particular library. He may also wish to know the cost of binding per book bound, or as compared with the total stock, or with the circulation, either of his whole system or of certain branch libraries whose work he desires to compare.

To illustrate the possibilities along this line, it may be stated that the finance department of a large city possessing a system of branch libraries asked this question, "Is it not possible to standardize the appropriations for branch libraries so that, at least within certain limits, it may be possible to calculate at once, from certain statistics relating to a library, what its annual maintenance ought to cost?" If a formula for this calculation could be constructed, it would doubtless simplify greatly the work of preparing estimates. An attempt has been occasionally made to do this, but the data taken into account have been too few. Probably the most elementary is the proviso contained in the Carnegie agreements, that the minimum annual appropriation for the maintenance of a library shall be ten per cent of the sum expended in building and equipment. This has generally proved insufficient, and in some cases fifteen per cent has been substituted for ten in the contract. Here it has been assumed that the cost of maintenance is roughly proportional to the cost of the building. Some of the other data that should be taken into account are the number of books, their circulation, the size of the building, its

age, the hours of opening, and so on. Such data may be stated numerically. Others that cannot be so stated directly, and yet enter into the problem, are the character of the population (whether careful of the books or not), the capability of the library force, the standard of condition of the books, etc.¹

Of the library statistics proper—those relating to the books themselves—the most important are those involving the safety and state of preservation of the books and, next in order, those relating to the amount and kind of use that has been made of them. The safety of the books, the fact that they are still in the possession of the library, instead of being lost or stolen, is ascertained by means of an inventory taken at stated periods in a way described in another chapter. The figures thus ascertained—the number of volumes actually on the shelves, with a comparison of the figures with those of the year preceding, showing the number added, the number discarded, and the number missing during the year—may be considered as the fundamental data of library statistics. The facts that some libraries omit this periodical inventory altogether, and that others perform the task in a somewhat perfunctory manner, are surely surprising. The books under a librari-

¹The problem of constructing a formula embodying these data resembles that of representing algebraically a linear function of several variables, having given the values of the variables and that of the function in several instances. This is a well-known problem in the Method of Least Squares and is solved by the method of Indeterminate Coefficients. A number of instances equal to the number of the variables is required. This matter has recently received extended discussion in the American Library Institute, in which there was much dissent from the principles laid down above. The large amount of work required has hitherto prevented a rigid test of their validity.

an's charge are not his own property ; they are not even the personal property of the trustees. Often they are not even the property of the board as a body, but of the municipality. They are held in trust, and surely the first duty of their custodian, whatever else he may or may not do, is to ascertain and report whether they are all safe, and, if not, how many are missing and from what causes.

Closely connected with these data, and of scarcely less importance, are data regarding the condition of the books. The public that reads in a library report of the tens or hundreds of thousands of books on the shelves, surely ought to be informed whether these are as new or in the last stages of dilapidation—soiled, worn, and torn. Yet library reports seldom give sufficient information on this subject. Of course, the precise condition of each volume cannot be described, but at least the librarian should state how many of his books were discarded because soiled or worn out during the last year, how many are likely to be so discarded during the current year, how many were rebound, how many are in need of rebinding, and how many were mended. Some general idea should also be given of the standard used in discarding—whether the library is obliged to keep in circulation books that are badly soiled and torn, or whether it can and does discard volumes for a very slight drop below the normal in these respects.

In second order of importance I should place those statistics that probably the majority of librarians would put first—namely, statistics of the use of books. This includes a statement of the total number of times that the books have been used, either at home (“ home use ”) or in the library (“ hall use ”), given generally both by

time (usually by months), and again by classes. Both these uses were formerly stated together as "circulation"; but this term is now properly limited to home use. The unit here is the combination of a book and its user—a change in the combination means a separate count. In the statistics gathered by inventory the book is the unit, no account at all being made of the user. In another class of statistics, which should still be grouped under those relating to "use of books," the user is the unit, and no account at all is made of the book. Under this head come the number of users, "live" or otherwise, with the increase for the year, sometimes given by months and sometimes classified by occupations or by locality; attendance at reading rooms or at lectures, and use of reference books where it is difficult or inadvisable to report each separate use and each user's visit, is recorded as a unit.

In reporting the use of books, it has been suggested that not the single use, of varying length, but retention for a specified time, say one day, should be regarded as the unit. Thus a use lasting four weeks would count fourteen times as much as one lasting only two days. This is difficult, and has been attempted only experimentally for short periods. It gives greater weight to the books that require a longer time to read, which generally does greater justice to the use of nonfiction, but not necessarily so. For instance, one reader might well retain a novel four weeks, dipping into it at intervals, while another might keep out a work on mechanics only one day, having in that time read thoroughly a single chapter on a subject on which he required information.

In reporting by classes, the classification adopted by the library for its shelves is not always followed, nor

PROPERTY STATISTICS

should it be. The published report is for the information of the public, and it may be much more intelligible if classes are combined and subdivided in reporting. For instance, several classes may be reported together as Science, or some one class, such as Literature, may be subdivided. Fiction is usually reported separately, and Poetry may be so reported. All books circulated among children, at least when they are contained in children's rooms, are now usually reported separately, of whatever class they may be. Some class may be minutely subdivided for temporary collection of statistics thereon. Thus statistics of music scores circulated may be collected and reported on for a given year, books in foreign languages may be reported separately, or some such class as Science may be subdivided into Astronomy, Physics, Zoölogy, Botany, etc., for report during a specific period. An easy classification for permanent report and comparison, with temporary reports on special classes and subdivisions, probably serves to inform and interest the public in the best possible way.

The third class of statistics is generally a stranger to library reports, and it is probably not insisted upon by boards of trustees as much as it should be. Every library should have an official list, verified at intervals by inventory, of all its property in the way of buildings and their contents—furniture, floor coverings, pictures, etc. It is even more necessary to inventory library supplies, since it is much easier to remove ink, paper, pencils, or paste without attracting notice than it would be to take a table or a chair. Yet probably few libraries take regular stock of any of these things, large or small. Like the books, they are municipal or corporate property, of which the librarian is the responsible custo-

STATISTICS, REPORTS, ETC.

dian; and he should leave nothing undone to ascertain for himself, and to demonstrate to others, how faithfully he is keeping his trust.

It should not be forgotten, either by those who collect and report these statistics, or by those who read them or use them, that they are of various degrees of exactness, and that those that are nearest to perfect accuracy do not attain it. In any kind of scientific measurement the limits of probable error are always mentioned to give an idea of the degree of accuracy. The less the probable error, the greater the accuracy. It is never stated that there can be no error and that the accuracy is exact; this would be simply ridiculous. The same holds good in library statistics. In the average report nothing at all is said of accuracy; the reader is left to conclude that all the data are exact, or at least that there is no difference in their degree of exactness. This, as has been said above, is by no means the case.

Probably there is the least chance of error in data that are obtained by counting tangible objects—books on the shelves or ready for the bindery, cards in the circulation tray, readers in a room. There may, however, be errors in mere counting; there are almost certain to be such where the number of objects counted is large. Enumeration becomes wearisome, and the counter makes a mistake, so that such counting should always be tested by repetition, which is often laborious or impossible. In some cases, also, the objects counted are not those to be really enumerated, but only their representatives. Thus when the circulation is ascertained by means of counting the cards in the tray, each card represents a book, and if through some mistake the number of cards in the tray is not equal to the number of books loaned on the

COMPARABILITY OF DATA

day in question, no degree of accuracy in counting the cards will give the actual circulation. Again, it is easy or difficult to enumerate objects as they are at rest or in motion. To count 500 cards in a tray is comparatively simple; to count and classify a hundred persons in a reading room, when they are continually entering or leaving the room, may be well-nigh impossible. Still more difficult is it to note and record every use of a reference book, and most libraries have given up trying to do this, believing that the inaccuracy of such a count would make the statistics valueless. Reference use of books, however, is one of the most valuable parts of a library's work, and it is inadvisable not to record and report it in some way. Probably the simplest and best is to count users, disregarding each separate use. The figure thus obtained is of the same degree of accuracy as the count of reading-room attendance, although neither is as high as that of books on the shelves or of volumes circulated. Still more disconcerting to the student of library statistics are those whose meaning is uncertain. Thus "cards now in use" or "live readers" may mean almost anything, in the absence of exact definition or explanation. The method of distinguishing between cards in use and not in use or between "live" and "dead" readers should always be stated.

Anyone who has attempted to compare the statistics of different libraries, in an effort to arrive at some idea of the relative amounts of their work, has found his task difficult almost to the point of impossibility by reason of this vagueness and variability that runs through them all. Some items that he desires to compare are totally absent in certain reports; others are reported in such different ways that they are either not comparable

STATISTICS, REPORTS, ETC.

or become so only after a process like the reduction of English to metric measures. This lack of comparability has led to efforts, more or less sporadic, during ten years past to induce libraries to report the same items in the same way. So far, this has met with little success. Certain of the stronger state library commissions have the matter in their own hands, so far as libraries in their own states are concerned. They announce, as is done, for instance, in the State of New York, that in order to receive the annual state appropriation a report must be rendered to the proper authorities in prescribed form. If every state had its commission, and if these commissions could agree on a standard form of statistical report, the problem would be solved, so far as American public libraries are concerned. But many states have no commissions, and some of these have only nominal authority and no way of enforcing it. Even those whose agreement would effect something have made no agreement. A national library commission, with power to give a small subsidy to all libraries complying with certain conditions, could bring about a reform; for it is astonishing what a librarian will do to secure an addition of a few dollars to his library's income. Even action by the Library of Congress, in the way of recognizing, in the distribution of catalogue cards or otherwise, only those libraries complying with specified conditions, might bring about the desired result. All this, however, would require special legislation that is very unlikely to be obtained, and might even be adjudged unconstitutional. There appears to be nothing left, therefore, but moral suasion, and this the American Library Association has attempted to exert. Its Committee on Library Administration in 1906 formulated a

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

scheme and directions for taking and reporting statistics, but few libraries paid any attention to it and it was forgotten until 1914, when the matter was again taken up and a simple form was agreed upon which has been accepted by a large number of libraries and printed as a supplementary page in their reports. The results are gathered in the annual proceedings.

The fact is that our libraries are still individualistic. Few have grasped the idea that uniformity or united action is desirable. Libraries evidently publish statistics solely for the information of their own trustees and their own public. They simply do not care whether their statistics are or are not comparable with those of other libraries. The result is that those who are studying library problems in a way necessitating the comparative use of statistics are obliged more and more to resort to the *questionnaire*—the printed or mimeographed circular form, with its series of questions, perhaps thirty to fifty in number, which their busy brother and sister librarians are requested to answer. The very difficulty of giving any answer at all to many of these questions is an indication of the great variation in the kind of statistics kept and in the methods of recording them. Were the keeping of statistics standardized, a considerable percentage of the questions asked in this way might be omitted, except by those economical querists who prefer to have their labor performed by some one else. To expect a hard-working librarian to sit down and answer such questions as “What is the population of your city?” (an actual query widely circulated only a few months ago) is preposterous. Such questions as “What is your total circulation?” and “How many branches have you?” may also be an-

swered from the reports of all libraries, and deserve almost as earnest protest as the one first quoted. Of course, there will always remain questions on special subjects which cannot be answered from printed reports, no matter how standardized, and which are intended to be used in a way that will give valuable aid to all librarians. It would be a great pity for such queries to be generally disregarded, but the originators of careless and trivial *questionnaires* are doing their best to bring this about. Even now some librarians are consigning questions to the wastebasket as a matter of general policy, without examination; and communications that contain questions of the same grade as those quoted above should undoubtedly be so treated, no matter what course is pursued with others.

What should be included in the printed annual report that is now issued by all libraries of any size? If the library is under direct municipal control, this is, in form, a report to the municipal authorities from the board of trustees, showing how the library appropriation has been spent and what the library has to show for it. The activities of the library during the year are set forth both by statistical tables and by textual exposition, sometimes with illustrations. If the trustees are not directly responsible to the municipal authorities, as where the connection is merely by means of a contract, the form of the report is usually that of a communication from the librarian to his board. Even in the former case, this report of the librarian usually constitutes the major part of the document, that of the board to the city being often short and perfunctory—sometimes only a brief letter of transmittal. Reports of heads of departments, librarians of branch li-

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braries, etc., are often included, being sometimes given word for word, with signatures, and sometimes incorporated in the text of the librarian's report, with or without acknowledgment of their source.

The wide limit of variation in the statistical tables, their subject matter and arrangement, has already been noted. The variation in the text of the reports is as great, and even more striking to the average reader, who usually does not care to examine the tables at all. There would seem to be at least three types: (1) the perfunctory presentation of the library's work simply in compliance with law or custom and without effort to make it interesting to anybody at all; (2) presentation with the intention of making the library's work interesting to other librarians, without paying any attention to the general public; (3) presentation in a way to interest the general reader.

It is reports of the first type that have given rise to the general opinion among librarians that library reports are deadly dull productions, to be carefully filed after a brief glance at the figures showing circulation for the year, volumes added, and perhaps a few others. Reports of the third class, or attempts at them, are increasing in number. Their issue is generally good policy. The welfare of a library depends far more on its popularity than most librarians realize. Public opinion about the library and its work is often dependent largely on the experiences of users at the loan desk. About what the library is doing or trying to do in a large way—its field of usefulness, its aims, its limitations—few know or care; and if the general reader can be induced to inform himself about some of these things, nothing but good can result. It must be confessed, however,

that the average citizen does not yet take up his local library report with the same interest that he manifests in the presence of the latest issue of his favorite magazine.

As for reports of the second type, those interesting to librarians, these are increasing in number. Matters of interest to other workers are more intelligently selected than formerly and more clearly set forth. There has been progress, on the whole, all along the line; but there is plenty of room for more.

The use of his own statistics by the librarian himself, along lines indicated earlier in this chapter, is, of course, not limited to those contained in the printed report. An idea of some of the simpler of these uses may be gained from the following statement:

Regulation of Book Selection.—Comparison of purchases by classes with those of previous years and those of other libraries will often indicate undue expansion in certain directions and insufficient addition in others. Comparison of percentages of stock in the various classes with corresponding class percentages of circulation will show whether the library is keeping pace with popular demand along the different lines.

Economy of Administration.—Comparison of cost of circulation per book circulated with that in other libraries, or among individual libraries in the same system, will often reveal unsuspected weaknesses in this respect. In making such comparison, all expenses may be included, or only such as are properly incident to circulation, excluding certain fixed charges. It does not make any material difference, provided the costs to be compared have been calculated on precisely the same basis.

Comparison of pay rolls with circulation is also some-

USES OF STATISTICS

times illuminating, although here, too, care must be taken to see that all other things are equal in the cases compared. Many similar comparisons will suggest themselves; for instance, the cost of lighting, with total area of floor space or with the total cubic capacity of the building; the amount of fines collected, with circulation, and so on.

Use by Readers.—Comparison of the number of live cards with the total population in several libraries will show whether equal advantage is taken of library privileges, and may reveal some failure on the part of the librarian to make his library known to all classes and all localities in his city.

Comparison of the number of live cards with the circulation will show to what extent card holders, on the average, are taking advantage of their privileges.

Distribution of Readers.—A study of the residences of card holders as recorded in the registration book will often reveal an absence or a relatively small number of users in certain parts of the city. This may easily lead up to a discovery of the cause and to the adoption of means to remedy it. Residence may be indicated by dots on a map, and the grouping of readers to the number of a thousand or over may thus be shown very strikingly.

This might be continued almost indefinitely. Any librarian who is anxious to ascertain the weak spots in his library and strengthen his work at the points where this is needed may gain much valuable information by inquiries of this sort.

CHAPTER XX

LIBRARY BUILDINGS

THE architect—one of the few artists the result of whose work is to combine beauty and utility—too often assumes that his art is demanding of him an impossibility. He is apt to turn out a useful structure without beauty or a beautiful one without utility. The proper combination is often difficult, it is true, but scarcely impossible; else the architect would have no excuse for being. There are two distinctly wrong ways of going about the matter. One is for the owner to design a structure that will satisfy him from the standpoint of utility and then turn it over to the architect to be made beautiful. In this case it is little wonder that the “architecture” is “stuck on”—merely *appliqué* work, like trimming on a garment. The other wrong way is for the architect to design a beautiful structure and then turn it over to the owner to be adapted to his purposes as best it may. Such a structure is like a handsome woman whom, on acquaintance, we discover to be uneducated, incompetent, and silly—the beauty, though it still exists, is speedily forgotten. A building can be made both beautiful from the architect’s standpoint and useful from that of the owner or occupant by constant consultation between them, by comparison of views at every point, and by intelligent compromise whenever this is found to be necessary. This sounds simple

LIBRARIAN AND ARCHITECT

enough, but it postulates an ideal architect and an ideal owner. As neither exists, we have many imperfect buildings—objectionable from one side or the other. The old lady's request for "a very small Bible in very large type" used to be quoted as an example of stupidity asking for an impossibility. The joke has now lost its savor, for the invention of a thin but opaque paper has enabled the printer to produce exactly what she wanted. So in architecture, many an apparent *impasse* may be surmounted if the persons concerned have the requisite good will and ingenuity. Often each insists that the Bible must be made large or the print small; reconciliation of the apparently irreconcilable is not considered for an instant.

When a library is to be erected, the consulting parties are the librarian and the architect. There is usually, quite properly, a building committee of the trustees; its functions and those of the whole board in the premises are analogous to those of the board and its committees in the administration of the library. It should lay down general principles, leaving the librarian and the architect to carry them out. Thus, if the trustees desire a wide, low structure instead of a high one, or if they wish the style of architecture to be Old Colonial, it is proper that they should indicate this to the architect. If they desire a more than usually capacious open-shelf room, or if they have decided that special attention shall be paid in the new building to technology, it is right that they should so direct the librarian. But the working out of the details should be left to the librarian and the architect, the board reserving to itself the right, on final examination of the plans, to say whether its stipulations have been properly carried out.

LIBRARY BUILDINGS

The worst possible combination is that of board and architect, the librarian being ignored, or consulted only when it is too late to make changes. In particular a board that undertakes to plan and construct a building for a newly organized library before its librarian has been appointed is simply sowing trouble which it will reap later, in ample measure.

Of course, the two consultants—librarian and architect—must have something to start with. The librarian must know just what he wants in the new building, how many square feet he requires for each purpose and the approximate position that will be most satisfactory for each department. The architect has a mental image of the sort of building he will probably design, conditioned by the stipulations of the trustees, the size, shape, and location of the lot, and the amount to be expended. When these two sets of specifications are brought together, the adjustment begins—the fitting of part to part, the advance here, the yielding there, the game of give and take that goes on until the final plans are evolved—plans that satisfy both sides, and yet are not precisely the same as those imaged at the outset by either.

If there is to be an architectural competition, this plan cannot be followed exactly; and the fact that it cannot be followed is a valid argument against competitions. It is necessary in some cases, however, that they be held. A general open competition, which is theoretically the best, means usually that none of the best architects compete; the time and expense of preparing plans are not sufficiently compensated by the small chance—perhaps one in twenty or thirty—of the final award. To remedy this, it is sometimes announced that the architect will be taken from a certain restricted number of com-

petitors, chosen by the jury from the open competition, each to receive a sum more than sufficient to pay for the plans. Or, if this is not enough to bring out the desired showing, certain eminent firms may be specially invited to compete, with the offer of a sufficient honorarium to induce them to accept. Some architects refuse to go into a competition, no matter what the terms may be—these, of course, will be barred out in any case.

If, however, a competition is decided upon, the requirements that must be observed by all the competitors should be somewhat more definitely formulated than above described, and printed or typewritten for distribution among them. There can evidently be no further consultation until the award has been pronounced and the architect selected, but the part played by the single architect may be partly taken here by a consulting architect or by the jury of award, who would naturally be consulted in the preparation of the specifications.

In the case of a library for a small town, a competition seems specially undesirable, the expense of holding it under proper conditions being unnecessarily large. Here particularly it is best to pick out a good architect and begin to work with him at once. A local architect is often desired, and if he is a competent man he may be better than one with a greater reputation but at a greater distance; the local man will take pride in designing a suitable structure for his own town; he will not be above devoting much of his time to the oversight of the work, and he will be at hand whenever he is wanted. There is much to be said in favor of placing a small building in the hands of an energetic young man with his reputation yet to make; the large firm will usually turn over such a building to an office subordi-

LIBRARY BUILDINGS

nate. The only thing to be made sure—and this is all important—is that the architect is really competent—that he will not erect a building that will be a laughing-stock from the artistic standpoint or a continual source of annoyance to those who must use it. It is not so difficult, however, to ascertain competence; it may easily be done by consulting an expert. Trouble arises, not from difficulty of this sort, but from the confidence of librarian and board of trustees in their own ability to judge, when they do not possess it.

When the preliminary plans have been settled upon, the architect prepares working drawings and specifications on which bids are to be secured. These should not be left entirely to the architect, as is often the case; the librarian should go over them carefully, insisting on explanations where he does not understand them; and he should read over the specifications in the same way. Not even this will give him a complete mental image of the building as it will appear when finished; dimensions, the shape of rooms, the relative positions of objects, the light, the coloring—all will be slightly unfamiliar to him, no matter how familiar he may be with the plans. They are sometimes surprising even to the architect himself, but no pains should be spared to get at them as accurately as possible.

Plans and specifications are now given out to contractors for bids, if the building is to be erected by contract, which is the usual way. If it is a very large one, there may be more than one contract, the work being divided into foundation, superstructure, interior finish, plumbing and wiring, and so on. It is to be hoped that open bidding with compulsory selection of the lowest bidder is not necessary. This is not the best way to buy

anything. The theory is that it prevents dishonest dealing, but the worst examples of fraud, speculation, and graft may be found under it. The best way is to invite several reputable firms to bid, and then select the lowest unless there is some good reason for doing otherwise. It may be cheapest in the end to take the highest bidder, if he be a man well known for probity and high quality of work. Of course, a high bid does not necessarily mean good work. Again, if it is desirable that the work be completed on time, a contractor's reputation for promptness and his ability to hold his subcontractors to their work should count in his favor. Time limits in contracts are of little value without penalty clauses, and such clauses have been sometimes held invalid by the courts, in the absence of offsetting bonus clauses for work finished before the limit of time. In any event, it is more satisfactory to select a good man who will do his work well and promptly than to rely on the law to hold a poor workman to the line. The same may be said of financial responsibility. The failure of a contractor in the midst of his work involves the owner in innumerable difficulties and much additional expense; and all chance of such an accident should be avoided by selecting a thoroughly solvent and responsible man. Many firms of architects have contractors with whom they are accustomed to work and whose methods, good qualities, and faults they know intimately. They will recommend these when the trustees are free to choose, and where all parties concerned are worthy of confidence there is much to be said in favor of accepting such a recommendation.

The architect will, of course, oversee the work during its progress; but here also the librarian, or some one else to represent the library, must keep a sharp look-

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out. There is still time and opportunity to make many small changes without expense, or even at a saving, and objectionable features may often be foreseen in the actual structure when they lay concealed in the plans.

The best site for a library building, large or small, is one with light, and preferably with ground, on all sides, situated centrally in a residence or a retail business district. A site closely surrounded by high buildings, or in a purely business quarter, or close to an uninhabited region, as a river, a lake, a large park, or an extensive railway yard or warehouse district, is not generally good. The recent idea of a "civic center" around which monumental public buildings shall be grouped has some things to commend it, but it may be overdone. A good location for a city hall and a courthouse is not necessarily good also for a library; it may be very bad. In general, situations that are "central" from a business standpoint are not so good for a library as those that are central from a residential standpoint. The same conditions apply as to a school; a lot opposite a schoolhouse is usually good for a branch library, and the neighborhood of a high school or college is appropriate for a central library.

That a library should be a conspicuous, monumental structure seems to be now taken for granted. Too many architects, however, take their cue from the chief function of the early libraries—that of storehouses for costly treasures. This, as we have seen, is not the keynote of the modern library. Too many library buildings look as if intended to keep people out instead of luring them in. One of the foremost American architects built a popular branch library with heavy steel shutters on the rear windows and wrought-iron bars on the front ones. There



FREE ACCESS SHELVES IN BRANCH OF NEW YORK PUBLIC
LIBRARY.



THE STACK ROOM, OTTENDORFER BRANCH, NEW YORK PUBLIC
LIBRARY.



were no treasures in it to be stolen; the designer was carried away by an idea—and, unfortunately, it was a wrong one. It is right that the building occupied by a modern library should give the impression of strength and dignity; but its strength should be that of a people's palace, not of a jail, nor even of a safe-deposit vault.

A large library usually contains two distinct parts—a stack room, in which the books are stored, and reading rooms, where they are used. As a reaction from the older buildings, where the books were stored in alcoves around a reading room or a series of such, these two parts were at first made absolutely distinct and separate; there was nothing but books in the stack, and no books anywhere else in the building. At present, although the stack room of a large library is still a thing apart, there are books elsewhere in the building, while in smaller buildings the stack may lose its individuality or altogether disappear.

In its most distinctive and separate form the stack is in a wing of its own and contains nothing but tiers and rows of shelves. It is generally filled with a framework of steel, with floors of glass or marble slabs so near together that a person standing on the floor can easily reach books on the upper shelf, between which and the ceiling there is no waste space. Aisles, also, are as narrow as possible, so that the book-holding capacity of the stack may be a maximum. In this form, no one but employees is expected to use the stack; the books are carried by pages or by mechanical book carriers to the reading rooms. In some smaller buildings, designed with an exclusive stack room like this, the stack has been thrown open to the public on the adoption of the

LIBRARY BUILDINGS

open-shelf system, and sometimes such a stack has been designed with the expectation that the public will use it, but it is not well adapted to open-shelf use. Supervision of users is impossible in it. Most stack rooms are lighted by narrow windows, occupying all available space in the walls at the ends of the spaces between shelving. To be thus lighted, the stack room must be narrow; but since the introduction of the electric light many librarians have given up altogether the idea of using natural light in the stack, and are placing it in the interior of the building, reserving all the natural light for the reading rooms.

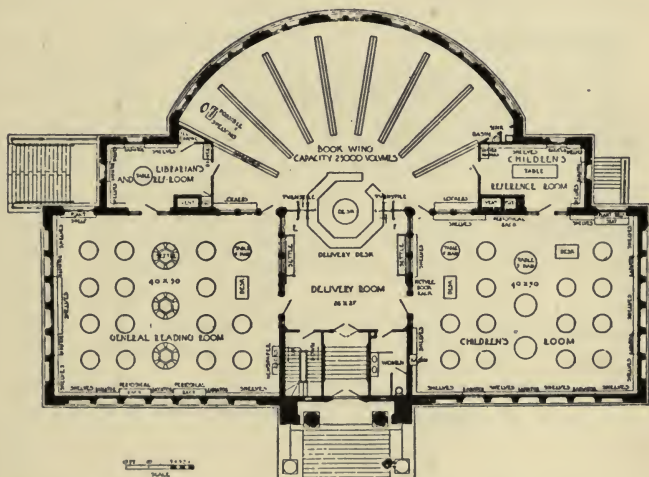
Some librarians have always protested against storing the whole stock of books in one place, and have preferred some such arrangement as that adopted by Dr. Poole for the Newberry Library, in Chicago—a series of separate rooms, each containing the part of the collection relating to a given subject—sociology, or medicine, or physical science—and in charge of a custodian who is an expert in the literature of that particular subject. This departmental idea was carried to its extreme by President Harper in the University of Chicago. It has not been a favorite with public libraries, but these have adopted certain of its features. Large libraries may have separate collections in economics, technology, architecture, or other special subjects, often in charge of expert custodians, and such collections as those of public documents may also be stored separately.

Library needs and conditions change so rapidly that almost any arrangement of rooms and departments goes quickly out of date. Some librarians now advocate the abandonment of fixed partitions as far as possible, building in open “lofts” divided by high, mov-

DEPARTMENTAL LIBRARIES

able book-cases, admitting easy re-arrangement. Some would go so far as to include the stack-room in this plan.

Smaller libraries, especially branches, may discard the stack altogether, and, indeed, it has little place in a purely open-shelf library. Where a sort of stack is located behind the desk, supervision may be insured

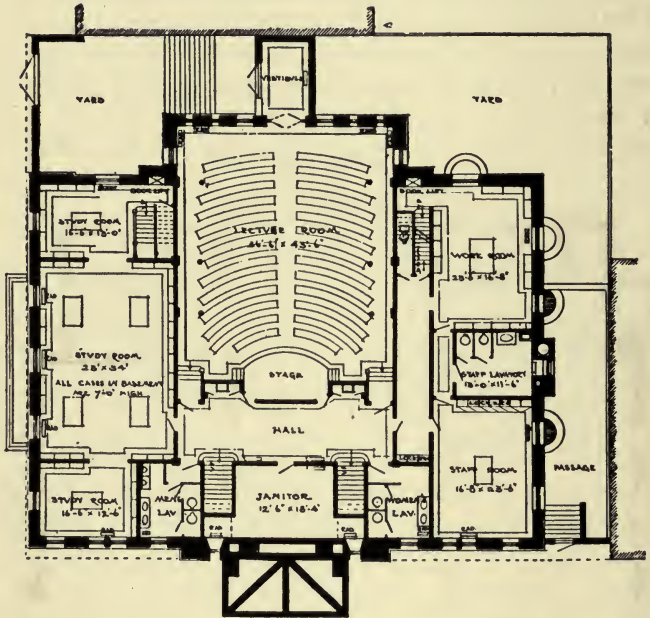


GROUND PLAN OF MAIN FLOOR, EAST LIBERTY BRANCH, CARNEGIE LIBRARY OF PITTSBURGH, PA.

by placing the lines of shelving along radii of a circle whose center is the desk. Another plan is to use low shelving and to place it wherever on the floor may be most convenient. The most elementary form of small, open-shelf library consists of a single room with shelving around the walls, the space within being occupied by a small charging desk and by tables and chairs for readers. In a somewhat larger form one end may be

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given up to children, and when the size is again increased we may have a central room, containing the

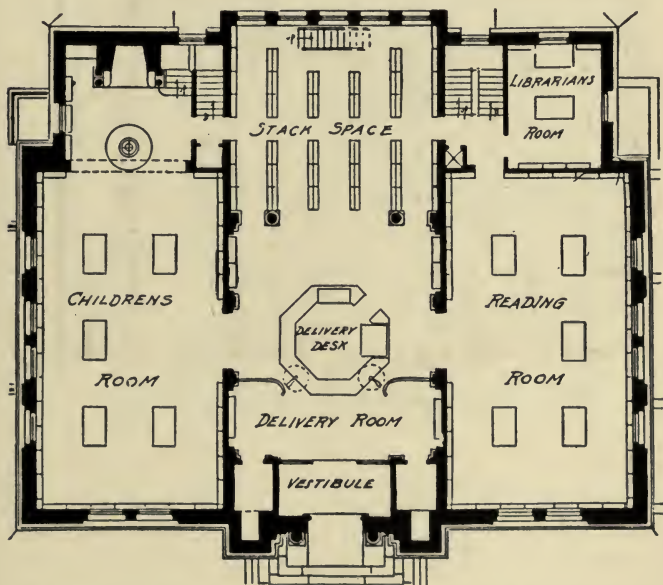


GROUND PLAN OF BASEMENT FLOOR, CARROLL PARK BRANCH,
BROOKLYN PUBLIC LIBRARY, NEW YORK.

charging desk, a book room in the rear, and open-shelf reading rooms for children and adults to right and left. This has been called the "butterfly type," on account of its body and two wings. Further growth gives space for a librarian's office, a workroom, a staff retiring and lunch room, special study rooms, etc. In the basement are, naturally, storage or packing rooms, a boiler room, toilet rooms, and perhaps an assembly room. In a small

ASSEMBLY ROOMS

building an assembly room is a nuisance, as it takes up space that could profitably be otherwise used; but it may be necessary to include it. In buildings of the "butterfly" type, having apsidal book rooms with radial shelving, the space below such a room is of excellent shape for this purpose. Some effort has been made of late to utilize certain space alternately for meetings and for some other purpose. Thus in some Philadelphia

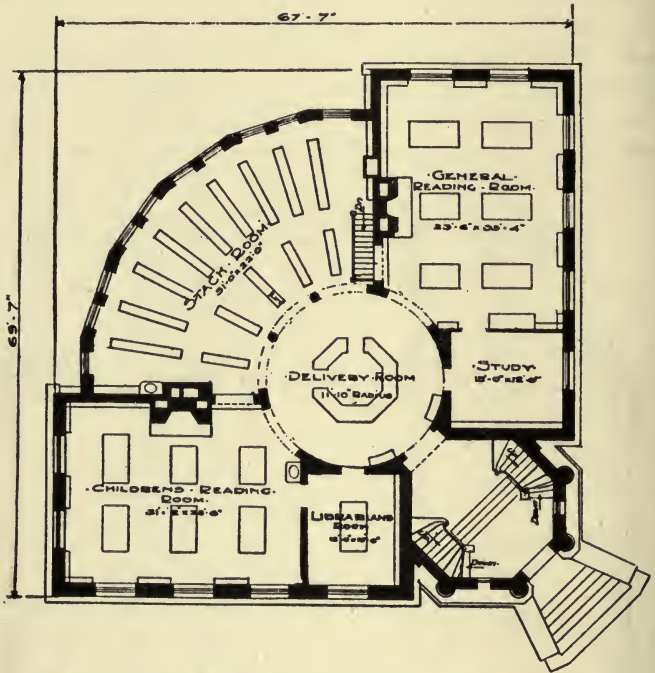


FIRST FLOOR PLAN OF FLATBUSH BRANCH, BROOKLYN PUBLIC
LIBRARY, NEW YORK.

branches the children's room, on the ground floor, may be transformed into an assembly room in about an hour's time by opening a large trapdoor into a storeroom be-

LIBRARY BUILDINGS

neath and exchanging the tables and chairs for assembly-room benches. The books on the wall remain as they



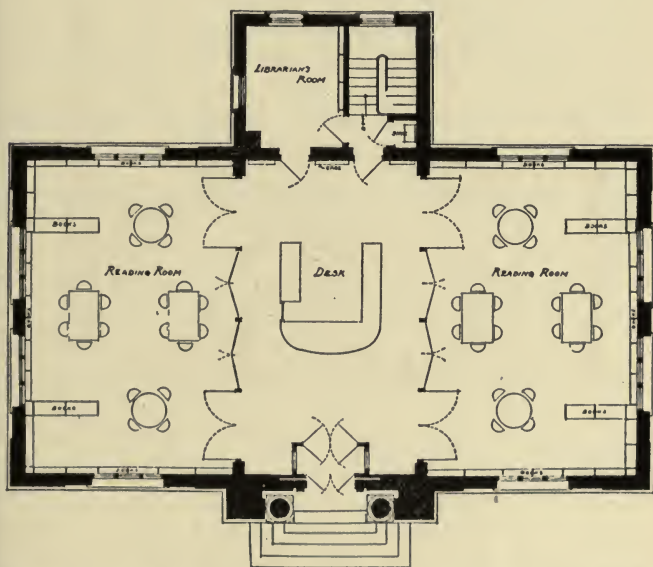
FIRST FLOOR PLAN, MARSHALLTOWN, IOWA, LIBRARY.

are. In some New York branches periodical reading rooms may be used as assembly rooms in similar fashion, space for storage of chairs being provided on the same floor, immediately adjoining.

In large buildings no such makeshifts are necessary. Such structures may contain several lecture rooms of different sizes, large suites of administrative offices,

STAIRS AND HALLS

quarters for a library school or training class, rooms for museums of curiosities or objects of art, a bindery, a printing office, and so on. Where there are several stories, the large building will have its separate staircase hall, which is often ornate. Smaller buildings may have stairs in a separate hall or they may be in the library room itself, a measure that makes for economy of supervision. The hallway often occupies the best part of the front of the building, and may be advantageously re-



GROUND PLAN OF MAIN FLOOR, PORT RICHMOND BRANCH, NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY, STATEN ISLAND.

placed by a small vestibule. Small branch buildings in crowded city locations where land is expensive may require several stories, in which case the entrance and

LIBRARY BUILDINGS

stairs are best located on one side. In such a building the children's room may occupy an entire floor—an arrangement not without its advantages. In large buildings a very wide latitude is possible in arrangement, a few cardinal principles being kept in view. Thus, where mechanical carriers are used, the relation of reading room to stack must be such as to make these easily operable. Carriers that turn corners are apt to get out of order. In some recent buildings the principal reading room is at the top of the structure, directly over the stack, which reduces all carriers to lifts, operating in a vertical straight line. Again, the administrative rooms must be in such sequence that a book may be received, catalogued, prepared, and shelved without jumping about from one part of the building to another; offices must be adjacent; rooms to be frequented by students must have no features likely to attract sightseers, and so on.

In all except very small buildings it is an advantage to include living quarters for the janitor and his family. Not only is it easier for the janitor to care for the library when he lives in it, but a better man may be secured for a smaller salary under these circumstances. The apartment should include living room, kitchen, bedrooms, bathroom, and space for storage. It may be in the basement, but is better at the top of the building, in which case a hand lift for supplies should lead to it from near the service door.

In crowded city districts it is often a good plan to place an open-air reading room on the roof. This requires a stronger roof, access by means of a stairway, proper lights, and an awning. It is also well to include a "deckhouse" with shelving to store books and papers

in a shower. Boxes of flowers, etc., add gayety and serve to justify the name of “ roof garden,” popularly given to such reading rooms. The awning is hard to manage, and a heavy thundergust may demoralize it, if close lookout is not kept. In some places a permanent roof is preferred, but with this the comfort of direct radiation upward must be foregone. Such a “ roof garden ” is really only a top story with no sides.

A library should have windows in abundance. In case wall shelving is to be used, the maximum space for this may be obtained only by raising the windows until the sills are above the line of the top shelf. This gives a shut-in appearance. Librarians who adopt it argue, with show of truth, that people do not, or should not, come to a library to look out of the windows, and that these apertures are only to admit light. There is no denying, however, that an occasional glimpse of tree or shrub, or even of a paved street, is a relief to the eye. This may be obtained by bringing some of the windows down lower, even if lowering them all would take up too much wall space. Low windows are advantageous from another standpoint also: they enable the passer-by to see what is going on within the library and often arouse his curiosity and attract him to enter. This, of course, can be the case only when the window sill is not more than four feet above the sidewalk. It is well not to place important rooms in the basement, but it is often necessary to locate an assembly room here, and in this case it is, of course, impracticable to place windows so near the sidewalk. It is also unnecessary where there are grounds around the building so that it becomes difficult to see in, no matter how low the windows may be.

No method of opening and closing the windows of a

LIBRARY BUILDINGS

library is quite satisfactory. The sashes may slide or turn on hinges or pivots. The box-frame sliding sash, balanced by weights, is most familiar to Americans and is most convenient in many respects, although architects do not like it. It is easy to make thoroughly weather-proof, but only half the window space can be opened at once—an objection in hot summer weather. The French casement window, with double-hinged sashes, is picturesque and may be opened to any desired degree, but it is almost impossible to make it weatherproof. The single pivoted sash, with pivots at top and bottom, is better in this respect, but stands at right angles to the plane of the window when wide open, which is awkward; and it is heavy to manipulate. Windows with numerous small sashes pivoted at right and left are advocated by many architects and a recent form in which the upper sash pulls inward and downward, while the lower moves at the same time outward and upward, has distinct advantages. Where shades must be used, the sliding sash is most convenient. With French windows, the shade rollers must be fastened on the top of the sash itself, and the same is true of the large pivoted sash. In both these cases the shade swings open with the sash. With numerous small pivoted sashes, the shade roller may be placed at the top of the casing, but the shade cannot be pulled down if the sashes are open far. With large windows it is often best to use two shades, either at top and bottom or together across the center.

Stained glass is out of place in a library unless there are so many windows that the one with colored glass may be left out of the reckoning.

Shall the library be fireproof? That depends. If no money can replace its contents, they cannot be in-

FIREPROOFING

sured, properly speaking; and no pains should be spared to make it as resistant to fire as possible. It must be remembered that no building can be fireproof in the sense that a sufficiently great heat immediately around it will not injure it and its contents, even if neither include combustible material. The only safeguard is to leave so large a space about the building as to preclude the possibility of a high degree of heat immediately around it. A public park is thus a good location for a library of this kind. Some modern buildings have been provided with "water curtains"—devices for letting fall a continuous sheet of water from the cornice in case of fire outside; but the efficiency of this device has been doubted. As for protection from fire arising from within, that may theoretically be attained by using no combustible substance in the building and its furniture and placing no combustible thing within it—an obviously impossible condition in the case of a library. A building is ordinarily reckoned "fireproof" if as little wood as possible enters into any of its structural parts; if, in particular, its roof, walls, exterior and interior, stairs, and floors are all incombustible, being made of metal, brick, stone and concrete or plaster.

In a smaller building, whose books are of such character that they may easily be replaced in case of loss by fire, it may often be bad policy to expend the increased cost of fireproof construction, especially where a limited sum is available, as is generally the case. It may be better to put up an ordinary structure of greater size and usefulness than to build an inadequate and cramped fireproof edifice.

For floors, a sheathing of soft wood, covered with linoleum, leaves little to be desired. In case of fireproof

floors, it has been found that the wood sometimes rots under these conditions, being inclosed between two impervious layers. The linoleum may be laid directly on cement, or it may be discarded and a floor of hard wood may be used. Wood floors are good, though difficult to keep clean and in condition in a largely used library. In more expensive buildings, terrazo, marble blocks, or tiles will generally be found. These are easily cleaned, durable, and handsome, but generally more or less noisy. Rubber interlocking tiling is soft, attractive, and easily replaced in worn spots, but very expensive, and apt to give off an unpleasant odor when confined. Compressed cork tile is soft, pleasant to eyes and feet, noiseless, and durable to ordinary wear, although it will not stand rough treatment and is expensive. There are various patent floorings, generally combinations of cements and sawdust, laid with a trowel, which give fairly good results, some of them combining the advantages of tile or terrazo with those of linoleum.

Most libraries require some mechanical appliance for carrying books from floor to floor. The conveyors used in large stacks have already been mentioned. In smaller libraries, having two or more floors, some sort of a dumb-waiter will ordinarily be required. An ordinary waiter operated by hand is the cheapest, but very exhausting to the strength of those who operate it. The electric lifts are convenient, though expensive, and apt to get out of order, but there is nothing better at present. The liability to accident may be reduced by lessening the number of electric connections. As usually constructed, the lifts have on each floor a set of buttons numbered to correspond with the different floors. Pressing button No. 3, for instance, on any floor will send the car from wher-

ever it may be to the third floor. In the simpler method each floor has but one button, pressing which brings the car to that floor. The car cannot be sent away from a floor; it must be summoned to the floor where it is needed. This involves communicating with the floor where it is to go, by speaking tube, telephone, or electric bell, but as the same communication would have been necessary to call attention to the fact that the car had been sent, no additional labor is involved. The number of connections, as is easily seen, is greatly reduced, and the liability to getting out of order is correspondingly decreased.

The problem of keeping a building clean is great, and not always satisfactorily solved. Outside, the disrespectful small boy uses the stone or brick work as a drawing board, and, although it is possible to remove the marks, they may be replaced in much less time than it takes to erase them. Scrubbing with metallic brushes and the use of the sandblast are the methods generally employed. Where there is much smoke the use of the sandblast is not to be recommended, as it leaves a roughened surface that catches and holds the soot. Within, the most difficult part of a building to keep clean—floors always excepted—is the plastered wall. In most buildings this is covered with several coats of oil paint, which becomes dusty or grimy very soon, either from the deposition of floating particles or contact with soiled fingers. Deposition of dust from the air occurs first and most conspicuously where convection currents impinge against the walls, as around wall registers and over radiators. This may in part be prevented by placing hoods over all such. The selective deposition of the dust, by which, for instance, the pat-

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tern of the underlying metal lath is sometimes picked out on a plastered wall, suggests that the phenomenon may be molecular, and that possibly, by experiment, a combination of materials might be found that would repel the floating dust instead of attracting. Investigations on what physicists call "molecular bombardment" indicate also that dust is driven from heated air against a colder surface; whereas, if the air is cool and the surface warm, the dust is not deposited. The subject in its practical aspects is worth study. It is possible to wash a painted wall so that it will look well, but the ordinary janitor only succeeds in making it look smeary. A wall will require repainting generally in three to five years, according to conditions. Inaccessible walls and ceilings may be covered with water paint, and this is now available even for surfaces that are within reach, as the newer varieties are hard to rub off. Decoration may be covered with size when first applied. The dirt washes off with it when the wall is cleaned, after which the size is replaced.

The invention of the vacuum cleaner has greatly simplified many of the cleaning problems of the library. By the use of nozzles of different shapes, many kinds of surfaces—hard walls or floors, soft rugs or fabrics, etc.—may be cleaned with it, and the dust is disposed of in a sanitary manner. Dust may even be taken from a standing row of books by a combination of blast and exhaust—the former to raise the dust and the latter to remove it, or by a combination of brush and exhaust nozzle, serving the same purpose. In a large library a special vacuum plant may be installed with pipe outlets at convenient points; in smaller structures the cleaner must rely on a traveling machine or

on some of the portable devices. The suction of some of these is deficient, and some experience is essential to the satisfactory use of all. Much greasy or sticky dust will not yield to any vacuum process. In any case, even if the small institution cannot afford vacuum cleaning, no method of removing dust should be allowed that throws it into the air. "Dustless" dusters and cloths may now be obtained that gather up the dust by adhesion, and may be easily cleaned by washing. In cleaning floors, the electric scrubbers now available save much time and energy.

Library furniture may be divided into two classes—the fixed, which is practically part of the building, and is often specified in the general contract, and the movable, which is usually bought separately. The former usually includes the charging desk; shelving, whether in the stack or along the walls; window seats or built-in benches, partial glass partitions, sash protection for stairways, etc. The latter are tables, chairs, movable benches, seats for assembly rooms, book trucks, signs, and labels, etc.

The charging desk is the library's central point, the place at which its most vital activities go on, the point at which the librarian comes into touch with his public. It may happen that the position and size of this desk may determine in conspicuous particulars, the character of the whole building. Architects sometimes object to "building a library around a charging desk," but the failure to do so may result in a poor building. The size and position of the desk depend on the conditions under which a library is to be used. Varying with such conditions, the desk may be small, for a small institution with limited circulation, requiring the attendance of only one

assistant at a time; large, for a large and busy library; high, for adults; low, for children; closed, where curiosity might tempt the public to invade it; having narrower or wider aisles at the sides as stricter control at the charging and discharging points is necessary. It may be in the front of the room, or in the center, or at other points, its location depending on the position of the entrance, on the light, on the necessity for a larger or smaller space in front, and so on. Both size and position may also depend, for instance, on whether a separate desk is to be used for registration. All these considerations are vitally bound up with the structural features of the building. If the latter is planned first, it will generally be found that the position of entrances, windows, columns, or other structural elements interfere with making the desk as large, or the aisles as narrow, or the position as far forward or as far back as the librarian desires. The position and size of the desk should therefore be among the data that are furnished to the architect to work to, at the outset.

Charging desks are of two general types—the open-shelf and the closed-shelf. The closed-shelf desk is typically a straight counter separating the public space from the stack room. The open-shelf counter, since all the library space is public in this case, surrounds, or nearly surrounds, a central area occupied by the assistants, generally only those who are doing desk work. This space and, accordingly, the shape of the counter may be of almost any form—rectangular, curved, or polygonal. The rectangular is the cheapest and simplest, although possibly the least beautiful. Except in very small libraries, it is desirable so to arrange the desk that all users shall pass close to it both on entering and



OLD CLOSED-SHELF SYSTEM, FORMERLY USED IN BRANCHES OF
THE NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY.



OPEN-SHELF SYSTEM, WITH DELIVERY DESK LOOKING TOWARD
GENERAL READING AND REFERENCE ROOMS, EAST ORANGE
(N. J.) LIBRARY.



on leaving the library. The simplest arrangement is to charge the books on one side and discharge them at the other, railings on both sides forcing the borrowers to keep close to the desk. The front is then free, if desired, for registration work. The smaller the inclosed area the easier it is for assistants, within limits, to move about in it, and especially the easier it is for a single assistant, in case of necessity, to serve it. On the other hand, there is less room in a small desk for the necessary drawers, trays, cupboards, and shelving. As the librarian lays stress on one or the other of these considerations, the desk will be larger or smaller—within limits. Some librarians prefer to carry on much general library work inside the desk; to provide room in it for assistants who sit at tables cataloguing, mending, or preparing new books for the shelves. This necessitates a very large desk, indeed. The reason for it is that the extra assistants are on hand precisely where they are needed in case of a rush, but it is difficult to avoid an appearance of disorder at such a desk, and it is easy to provide a more secluded place within easy reach for carrying on work of this kind.

Necessary features in almost all desks are a circulation tray, preferably covered when not in use (and at such times not projecting above the counter), removable in separate, light sections; an arrangement, on the charging side, for dropping the book cards through slits into compartments in a drawer below, thus effecting a preliminary sorting; a cash drawer with easily operated locking device; trays for applications, in case the desk is to be used also for registration; and cupboards or shelving for storing such articles as need to be kept close at hand. A marble or slate mopboard is desirable, as the

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toes of persons standing at the desk are otherwise apt to inflict damage.

Shelving in a large stack room is preferably metallic, with adjustable and readily removable shelves, and as few projections for catching dust as possible. The device for holding the shelves should be absolutely simple. All complicated locking or releasing devices get out of order. Metal shelving of this kind, while appropriate for a stack room, is not as well fitted for wall shelving, which should be preferably of wood, not necessarily with adjustable shelves, though these are better. Sections should be not more than three feet wide to prevent sagging. A standard height is six feet (seven shelves) in the adult department and three and a half feet (four shelves) in the children's room. The depth is generally six to eight inches, or ten to fifteen where the shelf is for large reference books. Open-access shelving intended for large, thin books, like bound music scores, should be fixed and divided by thin vertical wooden partitions about four or five inches apart. It is better to back all wall shelving with wood, as if the books touch the painted wall they leave marks and are themselves soiled. If there is no wooden backing, the wall behind the shelves may be covered with burlap, or at least painted a darker shade than the rest of the room.

In selecting movable furniture, it is always found difficult to match the trim and built-in objects, even if the furniture is made to order. It is best to have a sample of wood finished to suit and then sawed in two—one piece for the building contractor and one for the furniture builder. It is not uncommon to see a library where the trim reveals two or three tints, the shelving as many more, and the tables and chairs still others.

The old style of long table seems now to be regarded by librarians as cumbersome. Small tables, some rectangular and some circular, to hold about six each, are liked best. For adults these may be thirty to thirty-two inches high; for children, twenty-five to twenty-eight. Chairs in all cases should be of height for use with the tables, and in the case of the low chairs for children an adult chair, with the legs shortened by sawing, should not be used.

Two systems of heating are adapted to buildings like libraries—the so-called direct and indirect radiation. In both, despite the name, the heating is done chiefly by convection. In “direct radiation” the heater stands in the room or space to be heated; in indirect radiation it is in a separate space or chamber through which fresh air is passed, heated, and delivered where desired. The latter system furnishes ventilation also, and is much preferable on that account; but it is much more complicated and expensive than the former. The two are sometimes employed in conjunction. The terms are generally used of systems where the heaters are coils of pipe or radiators through which steam or hot water is passed; but they may well be extended to the case where the heater is a stove or its equivalent. An ordinary stove or gas radiator would then be classed as a “direct-radiation” system, and a hot-air furnace, whether heated by coal or by gas, as “indirect radiation.” As noted above, the only case where any considerable portion of the heat imparted is really radiant is where a very hot stove is the heater; in both systems air becomes heated by direct contact with the heater and rises, giving place to a new supply. The principal difference between the two is that in “direct radiation” the air is heated over and over,

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while with "indirect radiation" a fresh supply is continually introduced from without. A hot-air furnace, if properly fired and kept in repair, is a good and economical source of heat, especially for a small building. Its drawbacks are the effects of wind pressure in altering the delivery from the various hot-air flues, and the difficulty of keeping the furnace gases out of these flues. Most libraries are now heated by hot water or steam, between which there is little to choose. The two furnish different ranges of temperature, those of water being all below the boiling point and those of steam all above it. With hot water all radiators must be higher than the boiler, which often makes it hard to heat basements properly with it.

As most small libraries use the direct-radiation system, the location of the radiators is an important question. They are in the way, wherever they are. From the heating standpoint, the place for them is under the windows, for they may thus be supplied with fresh air by opening the latter slightly, and also the interior air, chilled in winter by contact with the panes, is heated as it falls and prevented from flowing to the floor, where it would form a cold layer. Space under windows, however is needed for shelving, or sometimes for window seats. Circular radiators in the middle of the room occupy space needed for readers, although the loss may be minimized by placing them around pillars. Among recent experimental positions are beneath or behind wall shelving, in suspension on walls, and beneath or behind window seats. The first two methods require careful protection with nonconductors to keep the heat from injuring the books. In these and other methods, where the coil or radiator is not exposed to view, there must, of











course, be openings below to admit the cooler air and above for the escape of the air after heating.

In small buildings ventilation may be obtained through the windows and doors. In large buildings there is generally provided also a system for forced ventilation by means of fans, operating usually in connection with the heating system. Such systems are rarely satisfactory and they are very expensive. A study of library ventilation is now being made by a special committee of the A. L. A. In a small building heated mostly by direct radiation it is often well for ventilating purposes to include two or three coils under the main floor, fed by fresh-air ducts. This may be done inexpensively, because the main-floor ducts will naturally be located just under the basement ceiling.

In lighting a library one or both of two general principles may be relied upon—that of local lighting or that of general lighting. The former aims to throw the light only on those surfaces where it is needed; the latter strives to flood the space with light, so that, just as in daylight, there will be enough for all purposes without directing it especially anywhere. Speaking generally, the former method requires less light and is cheaper, but a multiplicity of fixtures must be used to hold the sources of light and reflectors in the necessary positions. It is difficult to make these beautiful, and their number creates a feeling of confusion. On the other hand, to flood a room with light so that there shall be sufficient everywhere for all purposes necessitates very bright sources and makes it certain that the intensity in some places shall be very much greater than necessary. Experts are divided in opinion regarding the relative merits of general and local lighting, and in practice a com-

bination of the two is often adopted. Either light is thrown just where it is wanted—on the tables, the open-shelf books, the desks, etc.—and a feeble general illumination is furnished in addition by suspended lights, or a general illumination of sufficient power to light up all but the most inaccessible points is supplied, and supplemented by local light to reveal these. The most difficult place to light is the book shelf next the floor. In stacks where the general public does not have to be looked after, suspended lights, to be turned on or off as desired, are generally sufficient. One objection to fixed electric lights on reading tables, especially in children's rooms, is that they anchor the tables to the floor. Such fixtures should always be so arranged that the tables may easily be detached without calling in an electrician. By providing a sufficient number of floor outlets, with flush plates to cover them, reasonable variety in the positions of the tables may be secured.

Small rural libraries may have to rely upon lamps, and there is now nothing better than the various types using kerosene. If electricity is available, it should be used. The incandescent filament lamp is now the only one used for inside lighting, the arc being confined to

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- | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|  —Ceiling outlet, electric. |  —Floor outlet, extension. |
|  —Bracket outlet, electric. |  —Gas-outlet. |
|  —Bracket outlet, combination. |  —Wall outlet, shelf. |
|  —Baseboard receptacle. |  —Switch. |
|  —Floor outlet, flush. |  —Furniture outlet. |

KEY TO SYSTEM OF ILLUMINATION.

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outside work and the Nernst—an electric “Welsbach” once regarded as promising, having gone out of use. The ordinary carbon-filament lamp is fast being disused. The tungsten light is very white and bright—a near approximation to daylight—and it is economical in consumption of current. Great improvements have been made in the strength and stability of the filaments and these lights may now be had in a large range of sizes. The newer type, in which the bulb is filled with nitrogen gas instead of being exhausted, has distinct advantages, especially where large units can be used.

No matter what the source, if it is brilliant it should not be placed where the reader's eye can look at it directly. Especially is this true of the incandescent filament itself. Either frosted bulbs should be used or the bulb should be hidden by a shade. The brilliant tungstens should be inclosed in globes. Ground glass should be used for frosting; bulbs made partially opaque by the application of an outer coating are apt to turn brown or black.

Where localized lighting is used, prismatic reflectors are of great aid in directing the light where it is wanted, with as little loss as possible. Thus, on a reading table, the whole of the light may be concentrated upon the page instead of wasting much of it on parts of the table where it is of no value. It is possible also to distribute light over the books on an ordinary seven-shelf wall case so that the titles on the lowest shelf shall be illuminated with precisely the same intensity as those on the uppermost shelf, although five or six times farther from the source—a difference that would ordinarily entail a weakening of the intensity by a factor of 25 to 36.

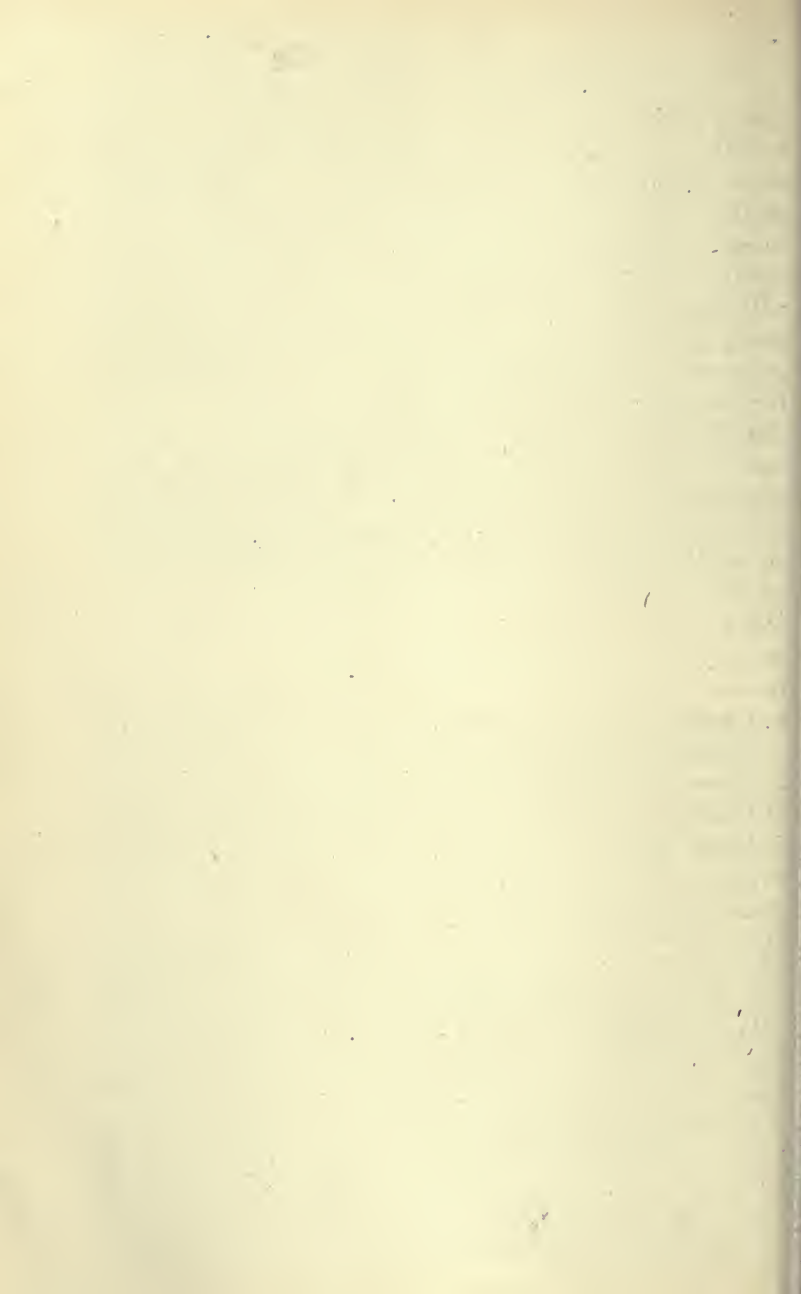
It should be borne in mind that brightness and dim-



ROOF READING ROOM, ST. GABRIEL'S PARK BRANCH, NEW YORK
PUBLIC LIBRARY.
Showing system of lighting.



FIRST FLOOR, ST. GABRIEL'S PARK BRANCH.
Showing system of lighting.



ness are relative terms. A surface—the printed page of a book or its lettered back—will appear bright or obscure as the eye moves toward it from a darker or lighter surface. In general illumination, with visible sources, it is very difficult to avoid looking at these directly, and immediately thereafter almost any surface will appear dark. In localized lighting, any expanse along which the eye is to travel must be lighted homogeneously. If lamps and reflectors are so arranged, for instance, that alternate sections of a wall case are slightly brighter than the others, the latter will appear dark to one who is examining the books, whereas the illumination would be satisfactory if the intensity along the whole case were the same, even if its average were considerably lower. This applies, of course, only to surfaces where the eye is to be used. Others may and should be darker, to enable the eye to rest occasionally. In too brilliant general illumination there is no place to serve in this way—everything is bright, and the eye soon tires.

Indirect illumination by reflection from the ceiling, the lamps themselves being invisible, is very attractive. It requires low, smooth, dead-white ceilings if the light is to be used for reading, and bright sources, such as tungstens, must be used. In the so-called semi-indirect system the suspended bowls usually employed to hold the light-sources are made of translucent material so that part of the light passes through. These are now usually fitted with white reflectors, which throw much of the light downward without its reaching the ceiling. Fixtures painted white to match the ceiling are used in some libraries.

Reflection from the walls, of course, is an important

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feature in any system of lighting. A library with dark walls and furniture will require a larger number of light sources of greater initial intensity for general illumination than one where the walls and fixtures are light in color.

Tube systems of lighting, where the light is produced by the passage of an electric current through vapor at low pressure, contained in glass tubing, are occasionally seen, and there is no reason why some of them should not be tried in libraries. The Cooper-Hewitt mercury light, where the vapor in the tube is that of mercury, is objectionable from its weird green-blue color, though very effective and cheap. Red sources may be used with it to correct the color. The McFarlan-Moore system, which in its present form gives a slightly roseate or salmon-pink light, is satisfactory in tint, but has so far not been employed in any library building.

Other features of library buildings not noted in this chapter may be found in those on the Staff (staff rooms) and on Work with Children (children's rooms).

CHAPTER XXI

THE LIBRARY AS A MUSEUM

THE library is not the only institution that has felt the impulse toward more complete popularization, described earlier in this book as the "modern idea." It may be clearly seen, for instance, in the best modern museums. The up-to-date museum has been brushing the cobwebs from its specimens and from the brains of its custodians, and is as different from the traditional institution as the modern popular library is from the old-time musty collection of books.

James Duff Brown¹ gives the following brief characterization of these out-of-date museums, which will be recognized as a faithful portrait:

"No doubt in some localities can still be seen the old-fashioned, hotchpotch collection of miscellaneous lumber styled a museum, wherein a stuffed walrus jostles a suit of armor, and local fossils and meteorites are beautifully mixed up with birds' eggs, flint implements, and coins. Such collections require only an alligator and a canoe from Fiji on the walls to be perfect specimens of the Wardour-Street kind of museum. Happily this kind of omnium-gatherum museum is rapidly dying out."

No one who is familiar with both library and museum in their latest forms can doubt that there may and

¹ *Library Economy*, p. 400.

should be the closest coöperation between them. No book is complete without illustrations, and the three-dimensional illustrations in the museum cases are vastly more effective than the two-dimensional pictures on the leaves of the book itself. That the educational use of museum specimens involves considering them as illustrations to some sort of text, instead of merely objects interesting in themselves, is shown by the elaboration that the labels have undergone in most of our best museums. They are no longer merely what their name indicates, but brief treatises, for which the attached specimens furnish the illustrations. Indeed, it has been said that a good museum is "a good collection of labels illustrated by appropriate objects." The information on the best and largest label, however, must necessarily be brief, hence the necessity of references to works giving a fuller treatment of the subject. These references are often placed near the specimen cases and the books themselves are to be found in the museum's own library—necessarily a limited collection, which needs to be supplemented by the larger resources of the neighboring public library. In like manner, the information given in the books on the library shelves is vastly illuminated by reference to the specimens contained in the museum, although from the nature of the case specific references, as from specimens to books, are not needed here.

This evidently close relationship between the library and the museum has led some cities to unite the two institutions, or at least to house them in one building, either under a single board of trustees or with two related boards. Although this plan has worked very well in some instances, it cannot be said that it has com-

mended itself to the judgment either of library or of museum authorities. One or the other institution is apt to suffer from the connection—not infrequently both do so. The relationship between the two is best not an administrative connection any more than that between library and school.

Certain kinds of exhibitions may profitably be given in libraries—often as loans from the museum, but these are better temporary than permanent. They are often specially related to the work of the children's room, and are discussed further in the chapter on Work with Children.

What has been said of museums applies in equal measure to art galleries. These are better kept in separate buildings and under separate management in large cities, although coöperating as closely as possible with the library in its general work.

In small places where there is little money to spend it would be foolish, of course, to maintain a museum and an art gallery separately. Institutions of this kind possessing any real value are seldom to be found at all in small towns, while the smallest may possess a collection of books that is worthy of being called a library. There is some excuse in such a case, therefore, for depositing a few specimens or a picture or two in the local library building. Great care, however, should be exercised in doing this. A general collection of any educational value, either in art, or science, or industry, is here an impossibility. The only excuse for keeping pictures or museum specimens must be that they possess local interest. It is quite possible, for instance, for a small village to own an interesting collection of the birds, or the insects, or the minerals found within its borders; or a collection

of portraits, whether paintings, prints, or photographs, of its prominent men; or a set of miscellaneous souvenirs or memorials of some famous man who was born in the place or was otherwise identified with it. In places where the town authorities are not preserving with care its manuscript records, the library may offer to become a depository for them and to keep them in repair, even copying them when they are in danger of becoming illegible. In a small place the library may go as far in such directions as these as its resources warrant, and even without financial ability it may stimulate sufficient interest to secure volunteer helpers for all these purposes.

In one division of museum work, however, the library is obviously the proper, and indeed the only, place for display; no other institution can take its place. This is when the specimens to be displayed are themselves books. Some noted libraries have been almost entirely book museums—their collections are not to be read, but to be looked at—and all large libraries own considerable numbers of books that come under this category. Some of these may be displayed permanently under glass, while others are securely packed away, to be brought out from time to time for temporary exhibition. The exhibitions of books and prints begun in the Lenox Branch of the New York Public Library, which as an independent institution was built largely as a book museum, have been continued in the new Public Library building. They have taken a prominent place among the attractions of the city, and receive as much notice in the press as is accorded to a new opera.

The qualities that may give a book interest for exhibition purposes are numerous. They generally have to do simply with the physical make-up of the book. Thus

its binding may be particularly fine or a typical specimen of the work of a great craftsman; its typography may be noteworthy; it may be very old; it may represent some particular epoch or illustrate some particular method of interest in the history of printing; it may include some odd typographic error that has made it an object of interest to collectors; it may have belonged to some famous man or to some equally famous collection; or it may be simply very rare, without possessing any other title to our regard.

Such books have an adventitious value; they may be worth many thousands of dollars each, but not specifically as books—rather as specimens or as curiosities which happen to have the form of books. The great popular public library can rarely afford to spend money for them; they come into its possession, if at all, usually as gifts, often from some wealthy collector who has given years of his life and a large part of his fortune to gather them. They are then, of course, gratefully accepted and displayed in whatever way may seem most appropriate.

Another way in which a library may be a book museum, and on which even the popular library may profitably spend some money, is in the exposition, by proper museum methods, of current methods of bookmaking. It may thus go as far as its resources warrant toward including in its walls a complete industrial museum of the arts of paper-making, ink manufacture, press construction and operation, typography and binding. Probably no library has yet gone as far as this, although some have devoted their attention to some part of the programme, such as typography or binding. It would seem that a permanent exhibition along this line would be much

more appropriate to a library than a collection of minerals or insects.

Even the smallest local library may have books that are kept wholly or largely for their interest as curiosities. These, just as in the case of the other museum specimens, should be preferably books of local interest—connected in some way with the history of the town or with some of its eminent citizens, as by authorship or ownership. The library of Bowdoin College maintains a separate room for editions and memorials of its great alumni Nathaniel Hawthorne and Henry W. Longfellow. In like manner, it may be possible for a small town library to keep on exhibition books written or owned by some eminent native or citizen, with manuscript letters, portraits, and other memorials. Works relating to the town or containing allusions to it, scrapbooks of local history or of fugitive articles and verses by citizens of the town, bound local periodicals, local menus, programmes, posters, and the like, may all form part of such exhibitions and as time goes on will make the library a place of interest, apart from its store of current books. Where there is a local historical society, of course it will do many of these things, and the public library need not duplicate them.

A department of the public library that is increasing in interest, and that may be said to be partly art collection, partly repository of useful information in pictorial form, is the print department. In such a department, which may be possessed by the smallest library, any picture made by a reproductive process may find a place, provided it may be of use to those searching for any kind of information. Its value may be purely artistic, or it may have no artistic value at all. Some homely

and ill-made woodcut may give a faithful idea of the style of house inhabited by Moldavian peasants in the seventeenth century or the costume of an infantryman in Frederick the Great's army, or it may be the only view extant of the city of Terre Haute, Ind., at a particular period of its existence. The value of such prints which impart at a glance information that could not be given in pages of text, lies wholly in their proper classification and availability. Anyone who takes the trouble to clip and sort pictures from current weekly and monthly magazines for a few years will have a collection that need not be despised, provided the collector has a quick eye for elements of possible usefulness. Costume, architecture, local customs, forms of animal and vegetable life, scenery—these are but a few of the elements that may give value even to a picture that was intended by the artist merely to amuse. Such collections are of value to teachers, to newspaper men, to artists, illustrators, architects, and decorators, to scientific men and to the ordinary citizen who wants to look at a picture of some particular person, place, or object. Prints that are works of art may, of course, also possess this kind of practical value.

The subject that we are discussing is closely connected with the use of objects and pictures for decoration in a library building. Probably no two persons have exactly the same ideas on this matter. Some have concluded that the walls of the library are better off without any pictorial decoration at all. This is a reaction from the old horror of leaving any portion of a wall bare. In our own houses the walls were first papered with some obtrusive pattern and then as many pictures as possible were hung over them—whether paintings,

photographs, crayon portraits, steel engravings, etchings, or what not. The choice or combination of subjects was also disregarded—the aim was simply to hang on the wall as many pictures as possible. The managers of our art galleries cannot afford to gibe at this kind of thing. Does a sensitive person ever enter one of these institutions without shuddering at the disharmonies of color tones and the *olla podrida* of sensations that crowd upon him from the walls, where all sorts of subjects, treated in all sorts of manners, touch elbows one with another? Doubtless it is necessary to hang pictures in this way in a public gallery where wall space is limited, but the cause of public art education suffers thereby. Probably many a man who has made up his mind that he “doesn’t like pictures,” and cannot be dragged into an art museum, has been confused and disgusted by what he has seen in some gallery. Very few people have the ability to make a mental abstraction of the one picture that they are studying, or trying to enjoy, in a gallery and to cause the surrounding ones to fade into nothingness. For most of us the Japanese idea of one picture at a time would be better in every way. In the school and the public library, at any rate, there is no necessity for such intimate jarring and jostling. Few and good pictures should be herein displayed. In favor of the ideas of those who would discard pictorial wall decoration altogether it may be said that large flat spaces of proper proportions, tinted in restful tones, have a quiet dignity that is coming more and more to be appreciated in architecture. If pictures are hung in such spaces, the sizes of picture and space should be well proportioned. When “good” pictures are prescribed, it must not be supposed that expensive ones are intended. The era when

all cheap pictures were bad has fortunately passed. In nature the best is often cheapest. As Lowell says:

'Tis only Heaven is given away,
'Tis only God may be had for the asking.

The incomparable beauties of God's world, the forms and colors of a landscape—sky, clouds, the masses and tints of foliage; the rocky or green-clad hills; water, quiet or in motion, may be freely seen and enjoyed. The two most wonderfully beautiful things—fire and snow—are familiar to the poorest boy. The human face divine, with its manifold changes of expression, may be studied and enjoyed by all. Now these things, by modern processes, may be inexpensively reproduced in pictorial form so that they are within the reach of almost everyone. Photographs and the various kinds of photo reproduction abound. Where it is desirable to see them through an artist's eyes we have reproductions of the paintings of great masters, or, more at first hand, we have simple colored lithographs, "poster pictures," such as are now imported from Germany at low prices, but often of astonishing artistic excellence, combining beautiful masses of form and color so deftly as to suggest the wonders of landscape much more vividly than its exact photographic reproduction.

In a large library, mural painting has come to be considered almost the only possible or appropriate method of wall decoration. He must indeed be bold who ventures to disregard the weight of eminent authority that attaches to this decision, but a modest suggestion may be made that it is a pity for famous artists to embody their deathless conceptions in

THE LIBRARY AS A MUSEUM

a monumental building intended to stand while time endures, by painting them, in colors that will one day fade, on plaster walls that will one day crumble and crack away. For a public monument, intimate connection of decorative with structural features, sculpture, and perhaps mosaic, would seem to be "indicated," as the therapists say. For structures that are not monumental, however, there seems to be no reasonable objection to paintings on the walls. The trouble is that such paintings, to be acceptable, must be by good artists, and that the unique work of a good artist is expensive. Nothing is more disheartening and humiliating than to see an ambitious attempt at mural decoration, with allegorical figures representing the Genius of Jonesville, and all the rest of it, in a perfectly good public library building, costing, say, \$50,000. Such things, alas! exist.

A possible solution of the difficulty lies in a recent invention, or adaptation, made by Ralph T. Willis, a mural painter, and James M. Hewlett, an architect, whereby, by the skilled and intelligent employment of paper stencils, used with paint sprayers or so-called "aërial brushes," it is possible to make quickly and cheaply a mural decoration, with landscape, buildings, or even figures, of as high grade of artistic excellence as is possible with any duplicate picture—say a lithograph, an etching, or an engraving. When the stencils have once been made by the artist, the production of the actual picture may be intrusted to less-skilled hands. In addition, wall-paper panels and borders are now made in artistic forms that may be framed and used for decoration. The makers' catalogues list numerous historical subjects appropriate for libraries.

So much for sizes and processes. What shall be the

subjects of pictures used for wall decoration in libraries? We may proceed on one or more of several plans.

(1) We may select pictures solely on account of the artistic value either of themselves or their originals. We may, for instance, buy a beautiful photograph or photographic enlargement for reasons entirely apart from any interest that the subject may possess; or we may hang a reproduction of Raphael's "Sistine Madonna" or a view of the equestrian statue of General Colleone, not because we consider a religious subject appropriate or regard Colleone as a character that should be made prominent in American libraries, but solely because the originals are great works of art. For the same reason we may use a picture of the Coliseum at Rome or of the Parthenon. (2) We may choose pictures that we think the frequenters of the library will like—photographs of favorite scenery, or of genre paintings such as inspire admiration in the average educated man or woman. (3) We may select our pictures wholly with a view to educational results, displaying photographs of historical paintings, of well-known works of art with which the educated person should be familiar, portraits of eminent writers, statesmen, discoverers, etc. (4) We may make our wall collection as local as possible—portraits of local celebrities, views of local scenery or of buildings connected with local history, drawings or paintings by local artists, and so on.

It is probable that a collection made with an eye to all of these plans will be most interesting and profitable. In the first place, it should be borne in mind that the ordinary man likes subject, not style; result, not the method of reaching it. One may be led to appreciate and love the art by interest in the subject; hence, for a

popular educational institution, subject should not be neglected. There is plenty of great art whose subjects are interesting and more or less familiar. It is probable that of all those who gaze at the mural decorations of the Boston Public Library—probably the best-known wall paintings in the United States—the vast majority pass over Puvis de Chavannes's allegorical figures to follow with interest Abbey's "Holy Grail" frieze or Sargent's "Prophets"—paintings whose subjects mean something to them. If some one should find a resemblance between the Puvis de Chavannes figures and some well-known public character, probably public interest in them would increase a hundredfold. The discovery by a Western writer, duly communicated to his home paper, that a figure in a European gallery was the image of a local politician of his state, probably interested thousands of persons in the picture who would never have heard of it through its merit as a work of art. The moral of all this, which may not be sufficiently obvious, is that, since libraries are in part institutions for the education of the great public, and since the public is powerfully stimulated and interested by the subject of a great picture, it is well for libraries to select for wall decoration pictures whose subjects will appeal to their users. He who looks long and often on a great picture whose subject interests him seldom fails, sooner or later, to appreciate that the art with which that subject is presented is, after all, the factor that has held his attention and prevented him from tiring of the picture.

Finally, the librarian should remember that his library, if filled with a few properly selected pictures, is, in effect, an art gallery, and will contribute to its users'

education in the appreciation of art—not, of course, by furnishing a complete series of historical examples, as a great collection would do, but by gradually forcing upon one and all the conviction that the way in which a thing is done may be that which makes it worth while. This is the cardinal principle of art—the fact that there is something in Bastien Le Page's "Joan of Arc," for example, that there is not in Smith's photograph of a girl standing under an apple tree.

CHAPTER XXII

LIBRARIES FOR THE BLIND

THE public library has suffered much from the idea, still prevalent in some circles, that it is a charitable institution. This idea lingers longer about some of its departments than about others, and it clings with especial persistence about its administration of collections of books for the use of the blind. Evidently a collection of this sort should no more be administered as a charity than should a collection for the use of any other class of persons—say teachers or mechanics. The blind have but one thing in common—their inability to use the one sense that has been chosen to serve as the vehicle of recorded ideas, as distinguished from those to which temporary expression is given in speech. It has thus become necessary to select another sense as such vehicle, and all teachers of the blind have agreed in fixing upon the sense of touch. The development of this sense for the purpose specified does not, however, create any special mental bond among blind persons, and we find among them all the different mental and moral types that may be discovered among the seeing. The treatment of the blind as a dependent class is now coming to be recognized as a mistake. The sooner they mingle with their seeing fellows, learn how to take care of themselves, and realize

that what success they may achieve must be in spite of their infirmity, not because of allowances that may be made for it, the better.

A collection of books for the blind, therefore, should be subject to no more limitations than any other collection. It should not be made with the idea that the blind desire one class of literature more than another, or that one style of type is better for them than another. Unfortunately, a collection cannot be broader than the available material, and the ideas of makers of books for the blind have not always been of the broadest. Some have apparently been possessed with the idea that as soon as a person loses his eyesight he begins at once to think of his latter end and of no other subject. Others have laid great stress on educational literature, and in general, until very recent years, there has been no effort to supply blind persons with light and cheerful reading matter—a sort of which they certainly need as much as the seeing.

Books for the blind were originally, and are still, largely issued by schools for the blind, which have been often under denominational control. Thus the librarian has been in much the same situation as if he were forced to make up his general library from the catalogues of the American Tract Society and the Society for the Propagation of Christian Knowledge. The first and still the largest collections of books for the blind are those connected with these institutions, or with societies formed in connection with work of the same kind. Some of our public collections have sprung from these, and the result is a regrettable limitation, narrowing the spheres of their usefulness in some such way as a library for the seeing would be narrowed if it were based

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on an old Sunday-school library, or if it should attempt to supply a mixed English, French, and German population with French books only.

The greatest limitation arises from the fact that methods of reading by touch have been independently originated in different parts of the world, or even in different localities in the same country. Each of these has been developed with little regard for the others, and the result is that each has its special literature, its schools, its teachers, and its warm advocates. The public library, of course, cannot take sides. It must furnish its blind with books in the type systems that they are able to read, just as it must give its seeing readers books in all the languages that they understand. Owing to the proximity of some particular institution, it often happens that the majority of blind persons in and around a given town or city read one kind of type. The books for the blind in the public library of that city will naturally be largely in this style of type, whatever it may be; but only for the same reason that most of the books in a French popular library would be in the French language.

Books for the blind in American public libraries are chiefly in three-point systems—the Braille, New York Point, and American Braille—and in two-line systems—the Boston letter and the Moon type. Of the two general types of letter, the line type is the older—the first attempt to construct an alphabet for the blind being, as was natural, in the direction of large embossed Roman letters. Those who use this system have no new alphabet to learn (if they are seeing persons who have lost their eyesight); but recognition of the Roman letter by feeling the raised character is extremely difficult and,

with some persons, almost impossible. The full Roman or "Boston line" letter is now seldom used, its place being taken by an abbreviated and conventionalized alphabet, based on the Roman, known as "Moon type," after its inventor, Dr. William Moon, of Brighton, an English teacher.

The idea of devising for the blind an alphabet of entirely new characters, having nothing to do with Roman letters, originated with Louis Braille, a Frenchman. He constructed his letters of combinations of raised dots or points, which experience has shown are easily recognized and discriminated by touch. Any alphabet constructed in this way is denominated a "point system," and most of the reading now done by blind persons is in such systems. The original Braille type, with modifications, is now used in England, France, and Germany, and in this country by persons who have learned to read it abroad or who desire to use European books or periodicals, and especially European music. It is generally called here "European Braille" to distinguish it from the very considerable modification called "American Braille." New York Point is a point system having no resemblance to Braille, except in the fact that it is made up of groups of raised dots or points. It is so named because devised by the superintendent of the New York School for the Blind, Mr. William B. Wait.

In this country New York Point was for many years the type most used by the blind; but recently American Braille has been more and more employed and, its advocates believe, is about to take first place. An idea of the differences between these "point systems" may be obtained from the specimens on page 320. This is not the place for a detailed comparison of the systems

Says. I think that we are all agreed in this matter, and therefore there need no more words about it.
 Mon. No, there needs no more words about this matter indeed; for he that believes neither Scripture nor reason (and you see we have both on our side), neither knows his own liberty nor seeks his own safety.

Line Letter.

[illegible]

Very little more is all permitted
yats tonnac I, tser tonnac I, em ot
I cannot linger anywhere. My spirit
gnitnuoc ruo dnoyeb deklaw reven
house, mark me, in life my spirit ne
stimil worran eht dnoyeb devor rev
of our money changing hole, and weary

Moon Type.

a b c d e f g h i j k l m

Original French Braille.

a b c d e f g h i j k l m

American (Revised) Braille.

a b c d e f g h i j

•• ••• •• •• • ••• • •• • •••

• • • • ••• ••• • •••

New York Point.

TACTILE PRINT ALPHABETS FOR THE BLIND.

nor for a complete presentation of the claims of their various advocates.

The New York Point is more expansible, since there is theoretically no limit to the horizontal extent of its letters. The advocates of Braille do not regard this as an advantage, since a letter confined to two vertical rows of dots is, they assert, more easily and quickly recognized with the finger. New York Point takes up less room, and is the only system in which a complete dictionary of the English language has been published. In discussions of this subject not enough stress has been laid on the fact that systems of raised point may be used with either of two distinct ends in view—quick reading and instruction in language. In the former case abbreviation may be freely used, and there need be no capitals and only just enough punctuation to convey the meaning. In the latter there should be no abbreviations, and punctuation and capitalization should follow the accepted rules. In the case of persons who have become blind after receiving their education the former method is best, but where primary education is being given to blind children through the medium of raised characters, the latter should obviously be employed. With this distinction in view it may be noted that all systems use abbreviation freely in most of their publications, and that New York Point is more often wanting in punctuation and capitalization than is Braille, although not through the fault of the system, as it has means of conveying both. A hearing in 1909, given by the Board of Education of New York City, at which the advocates of both New York Point and American Braille presented the claims of their respective systems, resulted in the adoption of the latter in the public schools of the city.

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From the librarian's point of view, what is needed is a general agreement—international if possible, but at least covering the whole United States—to adopt some one system—perhaps a new point system combining the satisfactory features of the chief existing systems. Agreement of this kind would be worth the throwing aside of all existing books for the blind and all the machinery for making them. There is yet time to begin all over again in the right way. Fortunately, there seems to be some prospect of such an agreement, a so-called “standard dot” having been fixed upon by an American committee. This, however, is not the same as the type adopted by a similar British committee. The advocates of the two chief point systems in this country see nothing but good in their own methods and only inferiority in the others. Meanwhile the public library spends for books in various types money that might better be used in extending its selection of titles.

It is probable, however, that, even if the point systems should ultimately be unified, some line system like the Moon would still be required; for persons who have become blind late in life, and whose finger tips are not sufficiently sensitive to recognize groups of points, generally learn such a system with comparative ease, and it will thus be necessary to retain it, or something like it, for their use. It would not, however, be necessary to duplicate every work in this system, which would take an auxiliary or subsidiary place.

One reason why a unified system of some kind is desirable is the very great size and cost of books in any embossed type. Thus a novel like Dickens's “David Copperfield” occupies six volumes, each 14 x 12 x 5 inches, in New York Point, and about as much space in the

other systems. The expense of printing one of these books, although now lessened by the use of stereotype plates, is still large, as the following table of prices shows:

Thackeray, Henry Esmond, 3 vols.....	\$10.50
Shakespeare, King John	3.00
Schiller, Maria Stuart, 3 vols.....	9.00
Kipling, Day's Work, 2 vols.....	7.00
Scott, Kenilworth	4.00
Dickens, Tale of Two Cities, 3 vols...	10.50

Books made by hand present practically the same appearance as those that are "printed" (embossed) from type or plates. Braille may be written on an ordinary typewriter adapted for the purpose; New York Point cannot be so written, owing to the fact that the letters are of different lengths; but a simple machine called the "kleidograph," having fewer keys than a typewriter, which are depressed in certain combinations, enables it to be written as quickly. Any point system may be pricked in paper with a stylus. Formerly the Moon type could not be made by hand, and it could thus be used only for printing, not for writing; but a machine of typewriter form of embossing the letters has now been put upon the market. These various methods of making books by hand are of great use to public libraries. The principal sources of books for the blind as used in this country are now as follows:

New York Point.—American Printing House for the Blind, Louisville, Ky.

Xavier Free Publication Society,
59 E. 83rd St., New York City.

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American Braille.—Illinois School for the Blind, Jacksonville, Ill.

Perkins Institution for the Blind,
Watertown, Mass.

Institution for the Instruction of
the Blind, Overbrook, Pa.

European Braille.—National Institute for the Blind
(formerly British and Foreign
Blind Association), 224 Great
Portland Street, London, W.

Royal Blind Asylum and School,
W. Craigmillar, Edinburgh.

Gardner's Trust for the Blind, 53
Victoria Street, Westminster,
S. W., London.

Moon Type.—The Moon Society (now a branch of The
National Institute for the
Blind). See above.

Taking all these sources into account, the librarian finds that he cannot always get the books he wants or supply his readers with what they demand. He may supplement his stock or fill local needs by handmade or typewritten copies; and a member of the staff, in a large library, may occupy much of her time in this way. A short story, of ordinary magazine length, makes a small volume, easy to handle, and is usually very acceptable to blind readers. Such well-known stories as the Sherlock Holmes series, Mary E. Wilkins's, and the Uncle Remus tales can be obtained in no other way.

Books for the blind are handled by a public library in much the same way as those for the seeing. It is common to have a separate department or suite of rooms for the purpose; but this is not necessary; in fact, those who insist that the blind should mingle with the seeing and



BOOKS FOR THE BLIND, NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY.



be treated as much like them as possible should logically advocate giving out these books at the general charging desk. In many libraries the blind are provided with a separate open-shelf reading room, and sometimes stories are told or books are read aloud to them at stated intervals. Owing to the size and weight of the books, shelving for them is necessarily of unusual depth and strength, and a very few books occupy a great deal of space. A common size for shelving is fifteen inches in depth and fifteen inches between shelves, in sections not more than three feet wide. Such shelves will hold about three or four volumes to the running foot, or an average of ten or twelve inches to a title. Word for word, a book for the blind often occupies in cubic inches about eight times as much space as a book in ordinary ink type. A collection of such books requires the ordinary accession record, shelf list, and catalogue. These are for the use of the library. The catalogue, of course, may be used by seeing companions of the blind readers. For the readers themselves a list in embossed type, kept up to date by the addition of frequent supplements, should be made—a separate one for the users of each kind of type, printed in the same system as the books listed. There would appear to be no reason why a card catalogue in embossed letters would not be as useful to blind frequenters of a library as an ordinary card catalogue is to the seeing. Such catalogues are not common, but one in New York Point type was made, as an experiment, in the New York Public Library in 1907. It was used somewhat, but only to satisfy curiosity, and was never popular. In such a catalogue, in order that the embossed letters may be freely accessible to the finger tips, the bottom of the card (containing the hole for the

rod) must be treated as the top, and the face of the card, when it is filed in the tray, must be directed away from the user. In arranging the books on the shelves the first division should be by type, taking precedence even of that by languages.

There are two systems of musical notation, the Braille, which is the same for all varieties of this type, and the New York point, and much such music is circulated by libraries. For instance, in the circulating department of the New York Public Library, of 15,000 separate volumes or pamphlets, 5,500, or more than one-third, are pieces of music. In books for the seeing the corresponding proportion is not more than one per cent. The blind are not infrequently accomplished musicians and learn several type systems. This is particularly true of Braille, in which a quantity of good music is issued.

Some authorities lay stress on the necessity, or at least the value, of employing in a library for the blind a librarian who is herself blind. This reminds one of Dr. Johnson's nonsense line:

“Who drives fat oxen must himself be fat.”

The person in charge of a collection of books for the blind needs the full use of her senses; and although she should be able to read all the different systems of typography, she will be all the more valuable for ability to use her eyes also. The argument that a blind librarian is in greater sympathy with her readers seems to be a relic of the idea that the blind are separated or shut off in some way, mentally, from their fellows. Years of segregation may, it is true, bring this about; but it is not

desirable. A collection large enough to use several assistants may well include one blind person in the number, but the sole custodian of a small collection should have the use of her eyesight.

Owing to the small number of collections of books for the blind accessible to the public, many such libraries in the United States have thrown open their resources to readers in distant parts of the country. The New York Public Library, for example, sends books freely to all blind readers in the States of New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut and, on special application, to readers in other parts of the country who can show that the books they desire are not available in their own neighborhoods. Books for the blind are carried free of charge through the mails to or from a library, but are subject to the usual limitation of weight, so far as carrier delivery is concerned. As most books for the blind are above this limit of weight, the recipient must call for them at the nearest post office or send there for them. Notwithstanding this limitation, an increasingly large proportion of the circulation of books for the blind is through the mails. The New York Public Library in 1908 circulated 12,819 books for the blind, of which no less than 8,558 were sent to their readers by post and returned to the library in the same way.

Owing to this free mailing privilege, the establishment of a central collection of books for the blind has been advocated. From such a central institution books would go out by post to all parts of the country, and it would be larger and more complete than any existing library. The advantages of such a plan are manifest; but if carried out it would not take the place of existing collections. Free access to shelves is as valuable to a

blind reader as to one who has the use of his eyes, and there are still large numbers of blind persons who prize the privilege of personal selection of books at the library. The central collection would relieve local libraries of their long-distance mail orders, which they are now filling temporarily and because there is no other agency to take them over; and in this way it would benefit them by leaving them more free to care for the needs of local readers.

The staff of some libraries includes a teacher who seeks out uninstructed blind adults, who are not reached by the schools, and teaches them, if they so desire. Although such teaching is not strictly within the sphere of the public library (any more than it would be for a library containing French books to offer free tuition in French), it has been rendered necessary, or at least desirable, by the failure of the public educational authorities to furnish free instruction for the blind. Boards of education in the larger cities are now adding facilities for giving instruction of this kind, and the time may be near when this will be the rule rather than the exception. Even then, however, we may expect that many libraries will decide to retain the services of an instructor, for the reason that the mere offer of instruction to a blind person by no means insures that advantage will be taken of it. When a person becomes blind late in life he usually despairs of ever being able to read embossed type. It is necessary to plead with him, to quote instances of men in his own circumstances who have learned, or even to bring such men to relate their own experiences, before he will consent to begin. And when the inevitable difficulties prompt him to give it all up, some one is needed at his side to encourage him,

INSTRUCTION

to point out how much progress he has already made, and to keep him at his task. Such teachers have done much to let the light into lives that would otherwise have been dark; and the public library has been reaching out in so many unaccustomed directions that it can ill afford to drop the home teacher for the blind, where it is already availing itself of her services.

CHAPTER XXIII

TRAINING FOR LIBRARIANSHIP

WHETHER librarianship has yet arrived at the dignity of a profession is a moot point. There is no doubt, however, that it belongs to that class of occupations that require general culture, special training in theory, and practical experience, including skill in a certain number of manual operations. This, if it is a profession, classes it with medicine rather than with law. Of course, there is nothing in library work that compares with surgery in the degree of manual training required; but, on the other hand, such professions as the law or the Church require none at all. In librarianship, further, the manual operations are largely restricted to the lower grades of work, a chief librarian being largely an administrator; while in surgery they become more important as the operator advances in experience and grows in reputation.

Special training for librarianship was doubtless suggested by the work of such professional schools as those of law and medicine. The first formal course was organized in the library of Columbia University, New York, by its librarian, Dr. Melvil Dewey, in 1887. Since that time such courses have multiplied greatly, and they may at the present time be divided into three classes: library schools, summer schools, and training classes.

(1) Library schools may be affiliated either with a university or some other educational institution, or with a library. Thus the Pratt Institute school, in Brooklyn, is a department of Pratt Institute; the University of Illinois school, the Syracuse University school, the Simmons College school, in Boston; the Western Reserve school, in Cleveland, are all parts of the institutions whose names they bear. On the other hand, the Southern Training School is an adjunct of the Carnegie Library at Atlanta, Ga.; the Albany school, of the New York State Library; the Pittsburgh school for children's librarians, of the Carnegie Library in that city, and so on. Of course, it is desirable that any library school should be able to avail itself of a working library for training. Schools connected with colleges naturally use the college library for this purpose, but as the training thus afforded is not sufficiently general, such schools are often affiliated also with the nearest public library. The library of Pratt Institute not only serves the Institute students, but is also a free public library, open to all the people of Brooklyn. The Western Reserve school uses the Cleveland Public Library, the Syracuse school the public library of that city, and so on.

(2) Summer schools require little preliminary explanation, their relation to the longer and more formal courses being precisely that of a university's summer schools to its regular sessions. They may be carried on by the faculty of a school, as at Albany, by a State commission, as in Iowa and Indiana, or by individual librarians; and their proper function is to provide instruction for library assistants who have time only during their summer vacations to take a course of this kind. They are, of course, open to the charge of superficiality,

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which is objectionable only when it is mistaken for thoroughness. An assistant who has spent six weeks at the Albany summer school may, for instance, describe herself as "trained at Albany." This is no fault of the school, however.

(3) Training classes are local and special. Apprentices were formerly—and are still sometimes—received into libraries individually and allowed to learn what they could in return for such assistance as they could give. The training class originated in an attempt to systematize this apprenticeship on the part of libraries having much of it to deal with. It may also be regarded as a means of training for the lower grades, while the library school trains for the higher.

Taking up the three grades of instruction a little more in detail, let us glance again at the library schools proper. At the outset, zeal in the establishment of schools far outran discretion. The story is told of two maiden ladies in the West, innocent of all knowledge of libraries, who went to the head of the public library in a near-by city and asked for a few minutes of his time to give them information of his work, as they were planning to start a library school. This may be regarded as typifying one extreme.

It would be difficult in brief space to give an idea of the curriculum of the best library schools, and still more so to attempt any comparison between them. Most of them issue pamphlets or circulars giving such information in detail.

In the New York State school, which offers a two-year course for college graduates only, with the degree of B.L.S. (Bachelor of Library Science), the work of each year is divided into four parts—administrative, bib-

liographic, practical, and technical. The instruction is by lectures, class practice work, discussion, the giving of problems, and required reading. Each student is required to form a collection of material on the various phases of library work and to submit before graduation an original bibliography, or reading list, representing at least two hundred hours of actual work. Some of these are of considerable value.

The Pratt Institute school, which now offers a one-year course, though this has been occasionally supplemented with an advanced course requiring a second year, admits students through an entrance examination of considerable difficulty. Its course is divided into administrative, technical, bibliographic, literary, historical, and miscellaneous studies, with "laboratory work" in the library. These two courses are fairly typical. Of course, a statement on paper by no means enables one to judge of the standing or work of a school. The all-important thing is the ability and earnestness of the teaching staff and their numbers. Specialization in library training has been strongly advocated of late by many librarians. The Carnegie Library School of Pittsburgh for training children's librarians is an early case, but this is yet the only case of a special school, though there are such special courses as that for legislative reference conducted by the Wisconsin Library Commission. A normal course for teachers of library economy was begun by the Pratt Library School, but subsequently abandoned.

The training class, as has been said, is merely a group of library apprentices whose work has been unified and systematized. This may best be done in a system of branch libraries where there is opportunity to

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give a variety of practical work. The librarian-in-charge of a library really serves as teacher of those who are under her charge, and hence such a class is, in a way, analogous to the preceptorial system in a college—at least, if properly carried out. It is advisable, therefore, to place apprentices only at libraries whose heads are likely to take a personal interest in them and not regard their presence simply as a bore. The kinds of work that should be given them to do are, of course, prescribed by the instructor at headquarters; and they should meet the instructor at least once a week for a comparison of experiences and for lectures. Members of the library staff may be utilized as lecturers, and in a large library a teaching force of considerable strength may thus be organized. This is a good thing not only for the class, but for the lecturers themselves.

So long as the conditions of employment in libraries remain as they are now, there will probably continue to be room for the three kinds of training agencies that have been described. Possibly the school with its formal course, followed by the bestowal of a degree, may be restricted to college graduates, as is now the case in several instances. The training school would then be open to high-school graduates and the summer school to library assistants actually in employment. At present the number of library assistants having formal training is proportionately small. Graduates of library schools go at once into the higher grades, and the best soon take charge of small town or city libraries or of branches in some large system. Of 124 new appointments made in the circulating department of the New York Public Library in nine months ending Oct. 1, 1914, including the staffs of all of branch libraries, 43 were library-school

graduates, 25 coming from the library's own training school, 32 had taken the library's probationary test, 13 came in as substitutes, 20 were appointed from other libraries, and 16 were reappointments of former staff members. Before the American Library Association in 1902 the writer of this volume called attention to the fact that, although library schools aim to reach the same footing as regards training for the library profession that is occupied by our medical and law schools, this condition of affairs has not yet been reached. His conclusions, at the time, were attacked, but he has seen no good reason to modify them, and they remain substantially true at the present time. They were, in brief, that library training is now in the same stage in which medical and legal training were at the time when medical schools and law schools began to be established. Previous to that time training had been chiefly by apprenticeship. A graduate in medicine or in law thus occupied a conspicuous position, owing to the rarity of his kind, and he stepped at once into prominence in his profession. To-day we are suffering from a plethora of agencies of legal and medical training, and, instead of assuming at once a position where he can earn a competence, the young medical or law student must work for years, sometimes for nothing, sometimes for a pittance, before he becomes self-supporting. There is no doubt that, although this is hard on the young doctors and lawyers, it is better for the public. It is unavoidable that young laborers in any profession should work up from inefficiency through experience to ability, but it is scarcely fair that the public should pay them full wages while they are gaining that experience. That library training is still in the earlier of the stages above de-

scribed is due not so much now to the paucity of schools as to a temporary abnormality in the demand for graduates, due to the expansion of library work in the United States—to a constant increase in the number of libraries and to growth of individual institutions, as well as to rise in the standards of librarianship. This state of things will not continue, and when it ceases we shall doubtless find that experience will be demanded as supplementary to training before remunerative employment—not the slight experience gained in a few weeks or months in connection with some course of training, but experience comparable to that undergone by the young medical graduate in his hospital or the young lawyer in a law office. In the discussion to which allusion has been made above it was pointed out that the material rewards of the successful doctor or lawyer may be very great compared with those of the successful librarian, and that the former could therefore afford to wait longer for them. This is true, of course. The salary question has been discussed in Chapter XIV, but it may be well here to take up one or two points that have especial bearing on library training. The successful lawyer earns far more than the best-paid librarian. And yet that lawyer, when he graduated from the law school, was esteemed to be worth almost nothing, until he had gained a few years' experience. Just how much, then, should a librarian, whom the public pays less at his best, be worth under the same circumstances? Rather less than more, it would seem. By the time that library training has reached the second, or more stable, period mentioned above, it is possible that the popular estimate of the economic worth of librarianship will also have risen, and with it the whole scale of salaries. The com-

parison of a salaried position like a librarian's with the work of a doctor or lawyer who lives by fees is, perhaps, unjust. The closest comparison is with the teacher, who, like the librarian, now begins to earn a salary immediately upon graduation. A recent estimate makes it probable that for the first ten years of work the aggregate amount earned by teachers and by librarians is sensibly the same. Afterwards, however, the former earn much more, until, in some cases, they may receive several times as much as librarians of the same grade and length of service. This means that, while, on the whole, the value of teaching is rated (rightly or wrongly) by the public as much greater than that of librarianship, the early rewards of the latter are disproportionately great, which is the same conclusion that has already been reached. These thoughts are forced upon any librarian of a large library who is trying to raise his staff to the highest standard of efficiency and to do it without overdrawing his salary appropriation. He is chagrined to find that he can employ so few graduates of library schools, and often to realize, when he has employed them, that he is paying for mere school training a salary that should be given only when experience is offered in addition. It seems to be true that a library-school graduate more often expects to step at once into a place that should require experience than does a medical or legal, or even a normal-school graduate. This is certainly not to depreciate the work or value of library schools. In them lies the hope of the library for the future.

Even more important, however, than the training function of schools and classes is their selective function. The confidence that one may feel in employing a gradu-

ate of a first-class library school arises not so much from a knowledge of the course of instruction through which he has passed as in the certainty that, were he not fit for employment, he would either have failed to gain an entrance to the school or would have dropped out before graduation. Similarly, the instruction given to apprentices or members of a training class, important as it is, may be regarded as secondary to the sifting process through which they go during their apprenticeship. The first question that should be asked of a course of training for librarianship should be: Is it so framed as to exclude absolutely the unfit? And among the unfit should be included those unfitted for library work not only by lack of general or special education, or lack of ability to acquire it, but also by reason of lack of cultivation, ill-temper, tendency toward disobedience, laziness, want of tact, and so on. The second question should be: Is the course, or is the method of selection of those who are to take it, so made that not only will the unfit be excluded, but the fit will be attracted? Our methods of negative selection are much more advanced and more thorough than those of positive selection. And, indeed, it is vastly easier to shut out the unfit than to select and gather the fit. Exclusion, however, is of little value unless there is a saving remnant. A process that is of the highest value when applied to a mixture of good and bad is worse than useless when applied to a collection from which the good is altogether absent. Hence the great need of library training to-day (and it shared with all systems of training for occupations) is a feature that will attract those who are eminently fit to become librarians. At present, librarians are drawn largely from the body of those who chiefly turn to teach-

ing as a means of support; and, as the salaries of teachers are higher, grade for grade, than those of librarians, there is danger that those who enter library work will consist for the most part of those who are "left over," in one way or another, from the teaching profession. When this danger is recognized, the remedy that is usually proposed is an increase of library salaries up to the point where teaching will cease to be financially attractive. No one, certainly no librarian, would be likely to enter an objection here; but, after all, this proposal loses sight of the fact that compensation for different employments must always be different, and that any abnormal variations which are artificially prevented from adjusting themselves result to the disadvantage of the more highly paid occupations rather than to the others. For instance, if for any reason the wages of plumbers should increase threefold—say by unprecedented activity in building—numbers of unfit and badly trained persons would doubtless be attracted to this employment. The natural result would be a drop in wages, due to competition; but if they were artificially maintained, perhaps by the endowment of some ill-advised philanthropist, the result would be a permanent fall in the average ability of plumbers. So the fact that the salaries of teachers are higher than those of librarians will attract to the teaching profession all those, both fit and unfit, who regard money as the primary object. Those who remain in the library profession will be, first, those who are unfit for teaching and, second, those whose eminent fitness for librarianship is so reflected in their love for it that they prefer to remain in it even at the lower rate of compensation. We desire to discourage the former class and to attract and encourage the latter. It is

well to equalize compensation, if it can be done; but this will certainly not bring about the desired result. What should be done is to make sure that all those who find it necessary to earn their own living by teaching, by library work, or in some profession of similar grade, shall be thoroughly informed regarding librarianship; the kind of work that is required in libraries, its privileges, and its advantages to an intelligent and cultured man or woman. That there is at present no such systematic effort to reach educated persons no one will probably deny—librarianship, in other words, is deficient in propaganda.

And not only is there lack of information on these points, but there is much misinformation. There seems to be a general impression, as all librarians who have talked much with candidates for employment will testify, that work in libraries is genteel, easy, and light, being specially fitted for the aged, the infirm, and for those whose unexpected accession to the ranks of the toilers renders hard labor distasteful to them. There is, it is true, another class of persons in whose view library work is largely a menial employment, and fitted for young women having such education and cultivation (but not ability) as would suffice to rank them as domestic servants.

These may be extreme statements, but in one direction or the other these forms of misapprehension are apt to tincture the ideas of the public about librarianship. They are favored by the fact that various kinds of libraries exist, both in quality and grade. There are still libraries where the custodian may sit all day and read or write, being undisturbed by borrowers. There are others where the service is largely manual, and where any-

one who can paste labels and place books on the shelves is accepted as an assistant. There is all the more reason for a well-considered propaganda that shall teach the public to discriminate between the typical and the unusual, between the good and the bad.

CHAPTER XXIV

ORGANIZATIONS OF LIBRARIANS

AMERICAN librarians have organized in various ways for mutual aid, for the discussion of questions bearing on their work, and, incidentally, for social intercourse. Such organizations may be divided into four general classes. In the first class, and admittedly at the head, is the American Library Association, the general and national organization. Next we have the state associations, varying in membership and importance and sometimes nonexistent. Thirdly, come the library clubs, usually covering a single city, but sometimes a large territory, as in the case of the numerous library clubs in New York or the Bay Path Library Club in Massachusetts. Fourthly, we have organizations of special workers, either national or local, many of the former affiliated with the American Library Association. Such are the National Association of State Librarians, the League of Library Commissions, and the recently formed Special Libraries Association. Here, too, perhaps should be placed the American Library Institute, consisting chiefly of the heads of libraries, whose organization and aims might place it in a class by itself. Besides these, there are organizations of the staffs of single libraries, and also temporary meetings, without permanent organization, as in the case of library institutes, held for instruction.

In fact, these organizations are so numerous that some librarians have thought that their formation has been overdone. If an assistant should attend the monthly meeting of her own staff, that of her local library club, at the same interval, take several days off for the state meeting, and a week for that of the American Library Association, besides going to the alumni meeting of her library school and an occasional institute, she would have scant time left, it would appear, for her regular duties. This is, of course, an exaggeration, for an assistant rarely attends even the majority of these meetings, nor would her duties allow her to do so. Most libraries send one member of the staff to the annual meetings of the American Library Association, paying all of the delegate's expenses; some may send two or three such delegates. Many libraries give the time to attend any professional meeting, provided absence does not mean trouble or expense to the library, but this limitation lessens attendance very much.

The American Library Association was organized in Philadelphia on October 6, 1876, following a national conference of librarians held in connection with the Centennial Exposition of that year. This was not the earliest convention of the kind in this country. In 1853 a conference of eighty librarians and others interested in bibliography was held in New York, largely as a result of the efforts of Prof. Charles C. Jewett, of the Smithsonian Institution, who was elected president of the conference. At the close of the sessions it was resolved "that this convention be regarded as preliminary to the formation of a permanent librarians' association." A committee was appointed to effect an organization, but there was no subsequent meeting until

twenty-three years later, when the Philadelphia conference, mentioned above, met in response to a call signed by prominent librarians and adopted the first constitution of the American Library Association, enrolling 103 members. The proceedings filled 101 pages of the *Library Journal*, whose first number had just been issued, and which served as the Association's official mouthpiece until the establishment of its own *Bulletin* in 1907. The organization of the Association attracted attention abroad, and the result was the assemblage of an international librarians' conference in London in 1877 and the founding of the Library Association of the United Kingdom. John Winter Jones, Librarian of the British Museum and president of the conference, said in his opening address:

"The idea of holding a conference of librarians originated in America—in that country of energy and activity which has set the world so many good examples."

Since its organization in 1876 the Association has held yearly conferences, with the exception of the years 1878 and 1884. The attendance has varied from 32 in the Catskills, in 1888, to 1,386 at Asbury Park, N. J., in 1916, being largely dependent on locality. A list of meeting places appears in the Appendix, from which it will be seen that the conferences have been held in widely separated places. Increase in the membership, which in 1916 had reached 4,124, has made necessary some changes in organization. As originally constituted, the Association had an elective Executive Board of five, from which the officers were chosen and which acted for the Association in the intervals between meetings. In 1893 a council of twenty members (afterwards increased

to twenty-five), "to act as an Advisory Board," was constituted. Its members were first elected, four at a time, from eight nominees presented by the body itself; afterwards without any such restriction. The officers were chosen directly by the Association, and collectively (with the retiring president) constituted the Executive Board. An unsuccessful effort was made in 1895 to take the election of officers from the Association. In 1909 the Executive Board was again made elective and the Council was greatly increased in numbers by adding to the twenty-five members chosen by the Association twenty-five elected by the Council itself, and as ex-officio members all members of the Executive Board, ex-presidents of the Association, and presidents of affiliated societies. The secretary and treasurer were made appointive officers. The last change was in some measure dependent on two events—the establishment of the American Library Institute, as explained elsewhere in this chapter, and the opening of permanent official headquarters for the Association. After a discussion lasting for several years, such headquarters had been opened tentatively in Boston in 1906, in conjunction with the offices of the Publishing Board, and placed in charge of an executive officer. In 1908 they were temporarily discontinued, owing to lack of funds, and in 1909 an offer from the Chicago Public Library to place at the Association's disposal for this purpose space in its library building was accepted. These quarters are now occupied, and are in charge of the Association's permanent secretary, who, under the revised constitution, is a salaried officer, appointed by the Executive Board.

Headquarters are open daily from 9 A.M. to 5 P.M., and all members of the Association are invited to use the

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rooms and to have mail sent to them (No. 78 East Washington St.) when visiting Chicago. Libraries are expected to use the offices as a bureau of information on any subject and to refer to the collections there gathered, which include a collection of library plans and one of library appliances in general.

The official headquarters is also the office of the Publishing Board, one of the Association's most active and useful adjuncts. This was organized in 1886 as a section of the Association. In 1900 it was changed to a board of five members, appointed by the Executive Board, and in 1909 it was specified that at least one member should also be a member of the Executive Board. The board's work was greatly extended in 1902 by a donation of \$100,000 from Andrew Carnegie, the income of which is to be used in preparing and publishing library aids. This and other smaller sums are held and administered by three elected trustees. The publications of the board are sold, like those of any publishing house, largely to librarians. They include lists, guides, indexes, catalogues, "library tracts," and several series of printed catalogue cards. It also issues the *A. L. A. Book List* and the *A. L. A. Bulletin*, the Association's organ, established in 1907, one number of which includes the Proceedings and another the Handbook. The policy of organizing sections, begun in 1886, was continued by the establishment of the College and Reference Section in 1889, the Trustees' Section in 1890, the Catalogue Section in 1900, the Children's Section in 1900, the Training Section in 1909, the Agricultural Libraries Section in 1911, and the School Libraries Section in 1915. Affiliated societies, which resemble sections, except that they have an in-

dependent organization, are the National Association of State Libraries (organized first as a section of the Association in 1898), the League of Library Commissions, the American Association of Law Libraries, and the Special Libraries Association. These meet with the Association, and their proceedings are published together with those of the larger body. State Library Associations are now also admitted to affiliation, and in 1916 nineteen such bodies were represented in the Council. At a conference of the Association there are three or four general sessions and two or three of each of the sections and affiliated societies, several of which may assemble at the same time in separate meeting places.

Membership in the Association has always been open practically to everyone interested in library work. Ever since the formation of the body certain of its members have felt that such open membership was a mistake or, at any rate, required modification, and this feeling has been largely at the bottom of various attempts, successful and unsuccessful, to revise or amend the constitution—the establishment of a council, efforts to restrict the voting power of the members, and finally the formation of the American Library Institute, as described farther on in this chapter.

The annual conferences last usually about a week, and include social events of various kinds, besides the usual addresses, papers, and discussions. It has been felt of late years that the assembling of the Association annually in different parts of the country was hardly enough to make it truly national in scope and to interest librarians throughout the United States in its aims and work. At one time it was planned to hold, besides the annual conference, district meetings in other

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parts of the country. This plan was not carried out, but as an alternative, beginning in 1907, the Association has frequently sent delegates to represent it at numerous state meetings, especially in the Middle West. If membership is to continue free to all, it should doubtless be as large as possible, and as wide an area as may be should be well represented in it.

At present, membership includes three classes—individuals, whether annual members or life members, and institutions. Individual members, paying annual dues of \$2, receive the *Bulletin* free and enjoy special travel and hotel rates at conferences. Institutions as members, who pay \$5 annually, receive also the American Library Association *Book List*, and may send to conferences delegates with the privileges of individual members. Individual members may become life members, exempt from dues, on payment of \$25.

The state library associations have taken a greater or less part in library affairs within their respective states according to the ideas, ability, and energy of those who have organized and administered them. The New York Library Association was avowedly formed to do for the State what the New York (City) Library Club had been doing for the city—that is, to increase mutual intercourse among librarians by discussion and social meetings. Thus, although it is one of the largest of the State associations and its week-long annual conferences have become second in importance to no other except that of the American Library Association, being attended by many librarians from distant states, it has not taken the part of adviser of the State authorities in library matters so actively as have some of its younger Western sisters. In some states the state asso-

ciations have entered into active campaigns for the enactment of state library laws, for the creation of library commissions and the appointment of expert and efficient commissioners, for the requirement by law of licenses for librarians as well as for teachers, and so on. In New York the State library authorities, who existed before the Association did, took an active part in forming it, and in its early years largely shaped its action. The Association began, several years ago, to hold library institutes for the instruction and encouragement of librarians of small libraries in all parts of the State, and the management of these has now been taken over by the State, which has also, largely as an outcome of this action, appointed two official library organizers. Thus the State Association in New York was largely a result of a central State library authority. In New Jersey, for instance, precisely the opposite was the case. The State Association, when formed, was comparatively devoid of interest—a mere body for discussion. The State had no central library authority, and, although it had a library law, the State government took no particular interest in the libraries of the State. As soon as the State Association began to make efforts in this direction, all this was changed. An efficient State library commission was created, traveling libraries were sent out to the rural districts, an organizer of noteworthy ability and success was appointed, a summer library class was established, and the libraries of the State now feel that they may depend upon the aid and counsel of the central State authorities when they need help.

In some of the Western States more than this has been done and still more attempted. The library commissions have become bodies of greater authority and im-

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portance, and acts that would revolutionize the library organization of the state have been introduced into the legislature and urged upon the attention of legislators by the associations as bodies and by their members individually. Success has not always attended these efforts. In Kansas, for instance, the creation of a State commission and the appointment of a library organizer have for several years been pressed without avail. The State Association finally appointed an organizer on its own account, but, as it was without funds to pay for his services and as he was a busy librarian, he could naturally accomplish little. In Illinois a commission has just been appointed, but the law creating it is not at all such as had been urged by the State Association, and the librarians of the State have accepted it only as better than nothing.

In other states still, where the state associations might perhaps have accomplished something by well-directed effort, this has not been made at all, or has been made feebly and ineffectively. In a few associations the organization is little more than nominal, and general interest is absent. In many states, where the library movement is in its infancy and libraries are few, no state associations have yet been formed. This is especially the case in the South. Such states, of course, are in more need of efficient organizations of this kind than are communities where libraries abound and where their value and their claim on the public are generally recognized. Sometimes encouragement and aid from other state organizations have been effective in the inception of associations of librarians in these states.

So far as the functions of state associations have been deliberative and social, an important outcome of

their activities has been the bi-state meeting. The earliest and still the most important of these, bidding fair to become a permanency among library gatherings, is the joint meeting of the New Jersey Library Association and the Pennsylvania Library Club (a State association in everything but name) at Atlantic City, N. J. The New York (City) Library Club once joined in this meeting, and it was once held in Washington, D. C., instead of Atlantic City, but with these exceptions it has taken place annually, usually in the month of March, as noted above. Librarians from all parts of the Union attend, and its sessions last for two or three days. Not infrequently bodies of wider scope, such as the American Library Association Council, Executive Board, or Publishing Board, or the American Library Institute, find it convenient to meet at the same time and place. For several years past these and other bodies have been meeting jointly in Chicago during the winter holidays. State associations in adjoining states have held occasional bi-state meetings, with mutual profit and enjoyment. A tri-state meeting (Kentucky, Ohio, and Indiana) was held in Louisville in October, 1909. Experience has shown that the Atlantic City plan of meeting in one town and having but one headquarters is best. The holding of sessions alternately in two neighboring border towns, each association having headquarters in its own state, appeals to local state feeling, but hardly insures a quiet and satisfactory conference.

The American Library Institute originated in a feeling on the part of many of the older librarians that the membership of the American Library Association had become too large and its organization too complex for

profitable informal discussion of matters of library interest, such as had been common in the early days of the Association. A smaller body, for deliberation only, consisting largely of the heads of libraries, seemed desirable. Some persons had in mind a body that should compare with the Association somewhat as the National Academy of Sciences with the American Association for the Advancement of Science, or as the Royal societies of London and Edinburgh with the British Association. It was even proposed to form a Library Academy, but this somewhat ambitious title did not meet with general approval.

The first outcome of this feeling was the formation of the American Library Association Council under the constitution of 1893. This body, however, had numerous legislative functions, and the performance of these, with the attendant discussion, almost completely masked its deliberative functions. It was still generally felt that the proposed small deliberative body should be closely connected in some way with the larger association, and opinion oscillated between the remodeling of the Council and the organization of a separate but affiliated body. Finally the American Library Institute was formed, the required connection with the American Library Association being obtained by making its nucleus the ex-presidents of that body. These chose additional Fellows, the Institute as thus formed voted for others, and the process went on until the full complement of Fellows was reached.

The Institute as thus constituted has been bitterly opposed by some librarians, who have asserted that its connection with the Association is wholly vague and loose. Under these circumstances, although all of the Fellows

are members of the Association, discussion in its meetings of some of the Association's affairs has been resented. A considerable number of the Fellows have shared in these feelings and have felt that if the Council of the Association could be so changed as to correspond in membership and functions with the Institute, it would be better for the latter to go out of existence. Of the value of the smaller deliberative body and the interest of informal discussion in such a body, made up of the older and more experienced members of the profession, there seems to be but one opinion among librarians.

The alterations in the Council effected by the new American Library Association constitution in 1909 were the outcome of this feeling. They make the Council almost, though not quite, wholly a deliberative body and only partly an elective one. The ex-officio members and those chosen by the Council itself outnumber those elected directly by the Association.

The Institute still maintains its organization, and in 1916 announced its intention of devoting itself to the larger and more special library problems, such as that of coöperation. Despite adverse feeling on the part of some libraries it would seem therefore that it had assumed permanent form. It has not affiliated with the A. L. A. and is in all respects a separate organization.

Library clubs, drawing their membership from cities, towns, or neighborhoods, have become numerous in recent years. None of them is a purely social club, although most of them hold social meetings—receptions, dinners, and afternoon teas—and none of them has a separate clubhouse. They afford opportunities to the librarians of a locality to become acquainted and to dis-

cuss matters of professional interest; and occasionally to listen to some outsider of ability and influence. In the State of New York a number of local clubs have been formed as the result of institutes held by the State. These clubs naturally vary widely in membership, influence, and the value of what they are able to do. Some have undertaken and carried through valuable bibliographical or other work. The New York Library Club has published a descriptive list of the libraries of Greater New York—over 300 in number—with particular reference to special collections of books, private libraries not included. Since 1910, it has also issued a regular bulletin of its own. Clubs might do more of this work, but it must be carried out by busy librarians, as a labor of love, and perhaps we should not wonder that it is only occasional.

Meetings held by the organized staffs of large libraries may differ little from those of library clubs. The programmes for discussion are often similar, and outsiders may be present by invitation. These gatherings are treated at greater length in the chapter on The Library Staff.

Library institutes, as now conducted, occupy a position midway between the summer or other occasional training class and the meeting of neighborhood librarians for discussion. So far as there is instruction by outsiders, it is like a training class; so far as those in attendance discuss and advise together, it is like a meeting. Most institutes combine these features, and they may consist of only one or two sessions or of exercises lasting for a week, as is the case with the institutes held by the Connecticut Public Library Committee. These differ but little, except in name, from such a

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summer training class as that held annually under the auspices of the New Jersey Library Commission. Institutes are usually local, however; in their essence they are for those who have neither time nor money to go far for instruction or for conference.

With the foregoing brief sketch of the various types of library organization, this account of American public libraries may fittingly close, for nothing is more characteristic of the modern idea in library work than the attitude toward it of those who are engaged in it, as evidenced by their desire for frequent conference and comparison of ideas.

1. The first part of the paper is devoted to a general discussion of the problem of the origin of life. It is shown that the problem is one of the most important and most difficult in the history of science. The author discusses the various theories of the origin of life, and shows that the most plausible is the theory of spontaneous generation. This theory is based on the fact that the conditions of the early earth were such that the formation of organic molecules was a natural consequence of the physical and chemical processes going on at the time.

2. The second part of the paper is devoted to a detailed discussion of the theory of spontaneous generation. The author shows that this theory is based on the fact that the conditions of the early earth were such that the formation of organic molecules was a natural consequence of the physical and chemical processes going on at the time. The author discusses the various theories of the origin of life, and shows that the most plausible is the theory of spontaneous generation.

3. The third part of the paper is devoted to a detailed discussion of the theory of spontaneous generation. The author shows that this theory is based on the fact that the conditions of the early earth were such that the formation of organic molecules was a natural consequence of the physical and chemical processes going on at the time. The author discusses the various theories of the origin of life, and shows that the most plausible is the theory of spontaneous generation.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX

A. L. A. MEETINGS AND MEMBERS

Date	Place	Att.	Member- ship Numbers	Added
1876, Oct. 4-6.....	Philadelphia.....	103	1- 69	69
1877, Sept. 4-6.....	New York.....	66	70- 122	53
1877, Oct. 2-5.....	London (international)	21
1878.....	No meeting.....	123- 196	74
1879, June 30-July 2.	Boston.....	162	197- 385	189
1880.....	No meeting.....	386- 397	12
1881, Feb. 9-12.....	Washington.....	70	398- 413	16
1882, May 24-27.....	Cincinnati.....	47	414- 454	41
1883, Aug. 14-17....	Buffalo, N. Y.....	72	455- 470	16
1884.....	No meeting.....	471- 476	6
1885, Sept. 8-11.....	Lake George, N. Y....	87	477- 513	37
1886, July 7-10.....	Milwaukee.....	133	514- 594	81
1887, Aug. 30-Sept. 2	Thousand Islands,N.Y.	186	595- 700	106
1888, Sept. 25-28....	Catskill Mts., N. Y....	32	701- 725	25
1889, May 8-11.....	St. Louis.....	106	726- 771	46
1890, Sept. 9-13.....	Fabyans (White Mts.)..	242	772- 884	113
1891, Oct. 12-16.....	San Francisco.....	83	885- 939	55
1892, May 16-21.....	Lakewood, Baltimore..	260	940-1081	142
1893, July 13-22.....	Chicago.....	311	1082-1230	149
1894, Sept. 17-22....	Lake Placid, N. Y.....	205	1231-1315	85
1895, Aug. 13-21....	Denver and Col. Spr...	147	1316-1377	62
1896, Sept. 1-8.....	Cleveland.....	363	1378-1550	173
1897, June 21-25....	Philadelphia.....	315	1551-1684	134
1897, July 13-16....	London (international)	94
1898, July 5-9.....	Lakewood Chautauqua	494	1685-1825	141
1899, May 9-13.....	Atlanta, Ga.....	215	1826-1908	83
1900, June 6-12.....	Montreal, Canada.....	452	1909-2116	208
1901, July 3-10.....	Waukesha, Wis.....	460	2117-2390	274
1902, June 14-20....	Boston and Magnolia..	1018	2391-2735	345
1903, June 22-27....	Niagara.....	684	2736-2975	240
1904, Oct. 17-22....	St. Louis.....	577	2976-3239	264
1905, July 4-8.....	Portland, Ore.....	359	3240-3497	258
1906, June 29-July 6.	Narragansett Pier,R.I..	891	3498-3979	482
1907, May 23-29....	Asheville, N. C.....	478	3980-4325	346
1908, June 22-27....	Minnetonka, Minn....	658	4326-4557	232
1909, June 28-July 3.	Bretton Woods, N. H..	620	4558-4704	147
1910, June 30-July 6.	Mackinaw Island,Mich.	540	4705-5002	297
1911, May 18-24.....	Pasadena, Cal.....	582	5011-5217	207
1912, June 26-July 2.	Katwa, Canada.....	704	5218-5628	411
1913, June 23-28....	Ottawarskill, N. Y....	892	5629-6018	390
1914, May 25-29....	Washington, D. C....	1366	6019-6486	468
1915, June 3-9.....	Berkeley, Cal.....	779	6487-6862	376
1916, June 26-July 1.	Asbury Park, N. J....	1386	6863-7260	398
1917, June 21-26....	Louisville, Ky.....			

STATE LIBRARY COMMISSIONS, WITH OFFICIAL
NAME OF COMMISSION OR BOARD AND
TITLE OF EXECUTIVE OFFICER

Alabama—Department of Archives and History. Division of Library Extension: Director.

Arkansas Library Commission: Chairman.

California State Library. Extension Department.

Colorado State Board of Library Commissioners: Secretary.

Colorado Traveling Library Commission: President.

Connecticut Free Public Library Committee: Secretary.

Delaware Free Library Commission: Secretary.

Georgia Library Commission: Secretary.

Idaho State Library Commission: Secretary.

Illinois Library Extension Commission: Secretary.

Indiana Public Library Commission: Secretary.

Iowa Library Commission: Secretary.

Kansas Traveling Libraries Commission: Secretary.

Kentucky Library Commission: Secretary.

Maine Library Commission: Secretary.

Maryland Public Library Commission: Secretary.

Massachusetts Free Public Library Commission: Chairman.

Michigan State Board of Library Commissioners: Secretary.

Minnesota Public Library Commission: Secretary.

Missouri Library Commission: Secretary.

Nebraska Public Library Commission: Secretary.

New Hampshire State Library Commission: Secretary.

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New Jersey Public Library Commission: Secretary.
New York. Educational Department. Educational
Extension Division: Chief.
North Carolina Library Commission: Secretary.
North Dakota State Library Commission: Secretary.
Ohio Library Commission: Secretary.
Oregon State Library: Librarian.
Pennsylvania Free Library Commission: Secretary.
Rhode Island State Committee of Libraries: Secretary.
South Dakota Free Library Commission: Field Li-
brarian.
Tennessee State Board of Education; Library Exten-
sion Division: Director.
Texas Library and Historical Commission: Secretary.
Utah Department of Public Instruction: Library Sec-
retary.
Vermont Free Library Commission: Secretary.
Virginia State Library: Librarian.
Washington State Library Commission: Secretary.
Wisconsin Free Library Commission: Secretary.

STATE LIBRARY ASSOCIATIONS

The following States have library associations. Meetings are held annually and officers change from year to year. Letters to the secretary will generally be forwarded by the State Commission or by any large library in the State:

Alabama	Connecticut
Arkansas	District of Columbia
California	Georgia
Colorado	Idaho

Illinois	Oklahoma
Indiana	Ontario (Canada)
Iowa	Pacific Northwest (including Oregon, Washington, Idaho and British Columbia).
Kansas	
Kentucky	
Louisiana	
Maine	Pennsylvania (called "Keystone State Library Association")
Massachusetts (called a "Library Club")	
Michigan	Rhode Island
Minnesota	Saskatchewan (Canada)
Mississippi	South Carolina
Missouri	South Dakota
Montana	Tennessee
Nebraska	Texas
New Hampshire	Utah
New Jersey	Vermont
New Mexico	Virginia
New York	West Virginia
North Carolina	Wisconsin
North Dakota	Wyoming
Ohio	

AMERICAN LIBRARY PERIODICALS

- American Library Association Bulletin. A. L. A. Pub. Bd., 78 E. Washington St., Chicago, Ill.
- Iowa Library Quarterly. Pub., Library Commission, Des Moines, Iowa.
- Library Journal. Pub., R. R. Bowker, 141 E. 25th St., New York City.

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- Minnesota Pub. Lib. Commission Library notes and news. Pub., Public Library Commission, St. Paul, Minn.
- News notes of California Libraries. California State Lib., Extension Dept., Sacramento, Cal.
- New Jersey Library Bulletin. New Jersey Library Comm., Trenton, N. J.
- New York Libraries. Pub., N. Y. State Education Dept., Albany, N. Y.
- Pennsylvania Library Notes. Pub., Free Library Comm., Harrisburg, Pa.
- Public Libraries. Pub., Library Bureau, 6 N. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill.
- Vermont Free Public Library Commission Bulletin. Pub., Free Pub. Lib. Comm., Montpelier, Vt.
- Wisconsin Library Bulletin. Pub., Library Comm., Madison, Wis.
- Special Libraries. Pub., Special Libraries Association, 54 Lafayette St., New York City.
- Michigan Libraries. Pub., State Library Comm., Lansing, Mich.

ENGLISH PERIODICALS

- Library Association Record. Pub., Library Association, Caxton Hall, Westminster, London, W. C.
- Library. Pub., 32 George St., Hanover Sq., London, W.
- Library Assistant. Pub., Lib. Assistant Association, Central Lib., 68 Holloway Rd., Islington N., London, Eng.
- Library World. Pub., 47 Harthan Road, Holloway, London.
- Library Miscellany. Pub., B. M. Dadachanji, Central Library, Baroda, India.
- Librarian and Book World. Pub., 36 Whitefriars St., Fleet St., E. C., London.

LIBRARY SCHOOLS

- New York State library school, Albany. J. I. Wyer, Jr., director; F. K. Walter, vice-director. 1887.
- Pratt institute school of library science, Brooklyn, N. Y. Edward F. Stevens, director; Josephine A. Rathbone, vice-director. 1890.
- University of Illinois library school, Champaign, Ill. P. L. Windsor, director. 1893.
- Carnegie library school, Pittsburgh. John H. Leete, director; Sarah C. N. Bogle, principal. 1901.
- Simmons college library training school, Boston. June R. Donnelly, director. 1902.
- Western reserve university library school, Cleveland. Alice S. Tyler, director. 1904.
- Library training school of the Carnegie library of Atlanta, Ga. Tommie Dora Barker, director; Mary E. Robbins, associate director, 1905.
- Wisconsin library school, Madison. Matthew S. Dudgeon, director; Mary E. Hazeltine, preceptor, 1906.
- Syracuse university library school, Syracuse. Earl E. Sperry, director. 1908.
- New York public library school, New York City. Azariah S. Root, acting principal, 1911.
- University of Washington library school, Seattle, Wash. W. E. Henry, director, 1912.
- California state library school, Sacramento. J. L. Gillis, director, 1913.
- Los Angeles library training school, Theodora R. Brewitt, principal, 1915.
- St. Louis library school. Arthur E. Bostwick, director; Harriet P. Sawyer, principal, 1917.

APPENDIX

SOME BOOKS AND ARTICLES ON AMERICAN PUBLIC LIBRARIES AND THEIR WORK

This is not a bibliography, and makes no attempt at completeness. Those who desire to follow the subjects treated in this book somewhat farther than the author's space has permitted him to pursue them, will, however, it is believed, find something of interest in each of the books and papers in the list.

The meaning of abbreviations is as follows: *Lib. J.*, "Library Journal," New York; *Lib'y*, "The Library," London; *Pub. Lib.*, "Public Libraries," Chicago.

ART, MUSEUMS, ETC.

- BAIN, J., "Lectures, Museums, Art Galleries, etc., in Connection with Libraries," *Lib. J.*, 1893, p. 214.
BOLTON, H. C., "Art Decorations in Public Libraries," *Lib. J.*, 1895, p. 386.
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Museum and Library, *Pub. Lib.*, Jan., 1903.
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ASSOCIATIONS AND CLUBS

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"The First Conference of American Librarians" (1853), *Lib. J.*, 1887, p. 526.

BINDING AND MENDING

- A. L. A. COMMITTEE ON BINDING; reports. See *Proceedings*.
"Binding for a Small Library" (A. L. A., Chicago, 1909).
BAILEY, A. L., "Library Binding" (N. Y., 1916).
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- NICHOLSON, J. B., "What a Librarian Should Know About Binding," *Lib. J.*, 1884, p. 102.
- POOLE, R. B., "Elements of Good Binding," *Lib. J.*, 1892, Conf. No., p. 15.
- WHEELOCK, MARY E., "New Books for Old" (St. Louis, 1916).

BOOK-SELECTION AND PURCHASE

- BOSTWICK, A. E., "How Librarians Choose Books," *Pub. Lib.*, April, 1903, p. 137.
- LORD, I. E., "Notes on Book-buying for Libraries," *Lib. J.*, 1907, pp. 3, 56.
- PALMER, W. M., "Relationship of Publishers, Booksellers, and Librarians," *Lib. J.*, 1901, Conf. No., p. 31.
- LARNED, J. N., "Selection of Books for a Public Library," *Lib. J.*, 1895, p. 270.

BRANCHES AND STATIONS

- BOSTWICK, A. E., "Branch Libraries," *Lib. J.*, 1898, p. 14.
- "Branch Libraries; a Symposium," *Lib. J.*, 1902, Conf. No. p. 38.
- COLE, G. W., "Delivery Stations or Branch Libraries," *Lib. J.*, 1892, p. 480.

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- SOULE, C. C., "How to Plan a Library Building for Library Work," Boston, 1912.
- STANSBURY, A. L., "Library Buildings from a Librarian's Standpoint," *Pub. Lib.*, Nov., 1906, p. 495.
- TILTON, E. L., "Scientific Library Planning," *Lib. J.*, Sept., 1912, p. 497.

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- BISHOP, W. W., "Practical Handbook of Modern Library Cataloguing," Baltimore, 1914.
- BLISS, H. E., "A Modern Classification for Libraries," *Lib. J.*, Aug., 1910, p. 351.
- BROWN, JAMES DUFF, "Manual of Library Classification and Shelf Arrangement," London, 1898.
- CUTTER, C. A., "Expansive Classification," 3d Ed., Boston, 1891.

- CUTTER, C. A., "The Dictionary Catalogue; Why and How it is Made," *Lib. J.*, 1890, p. 143.
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- HASSLER, HARRIOT E., "Common Sense and the Story Hour," *Lib. J.*, 1905, Conf. No., p. 77.
- HAZELTINE, ALICE I., ed., "Work With Children" [a collection of articles] (New York, 1917).
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- STEINER, B. C., "Legal Status of the Public Libraries in the United States," *Am. Law Review*, July-Aug., 1909.
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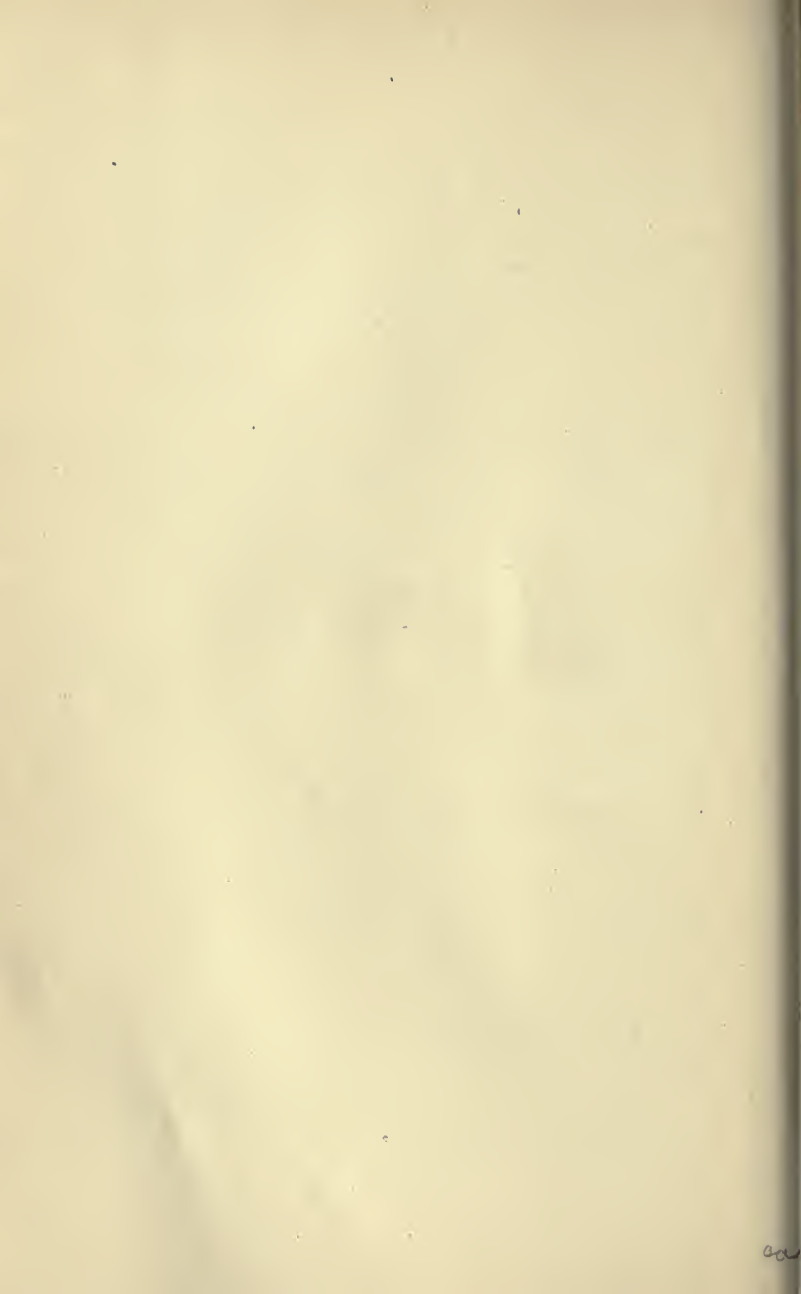
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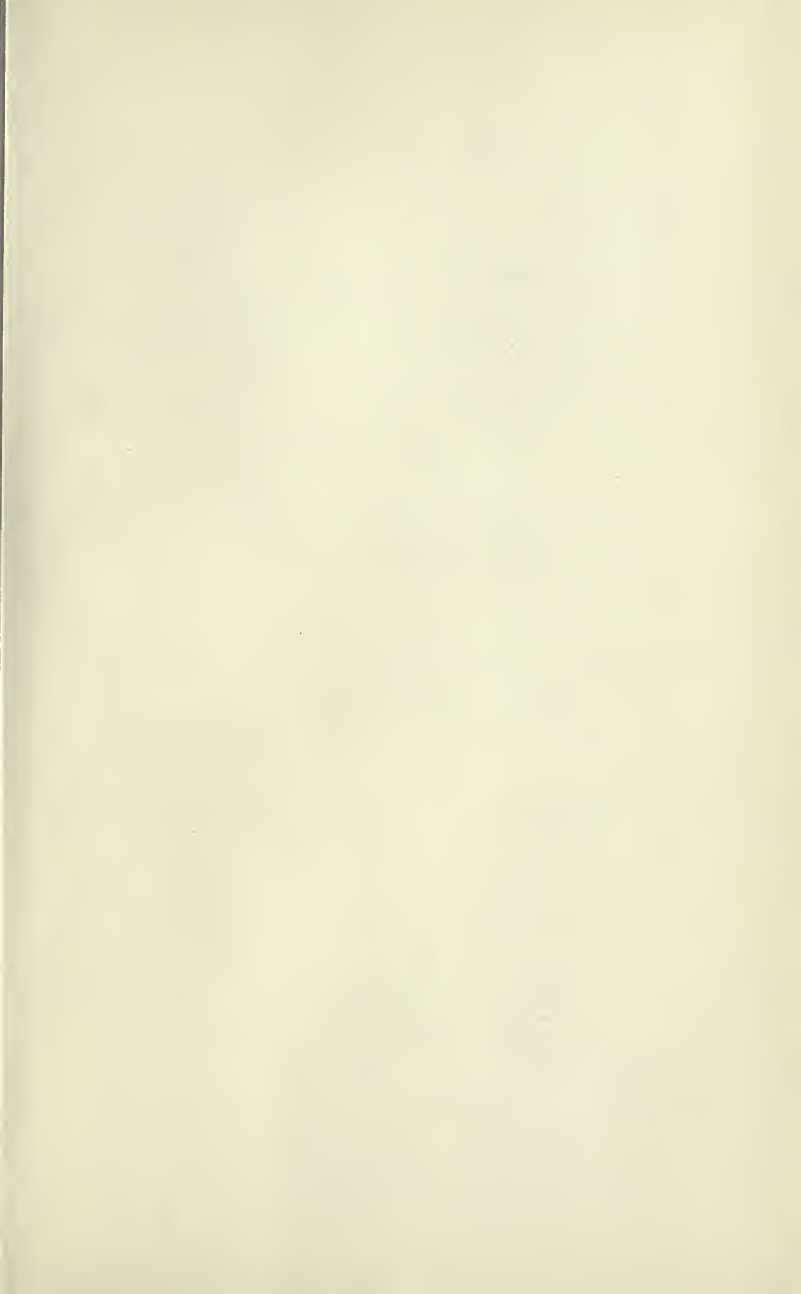
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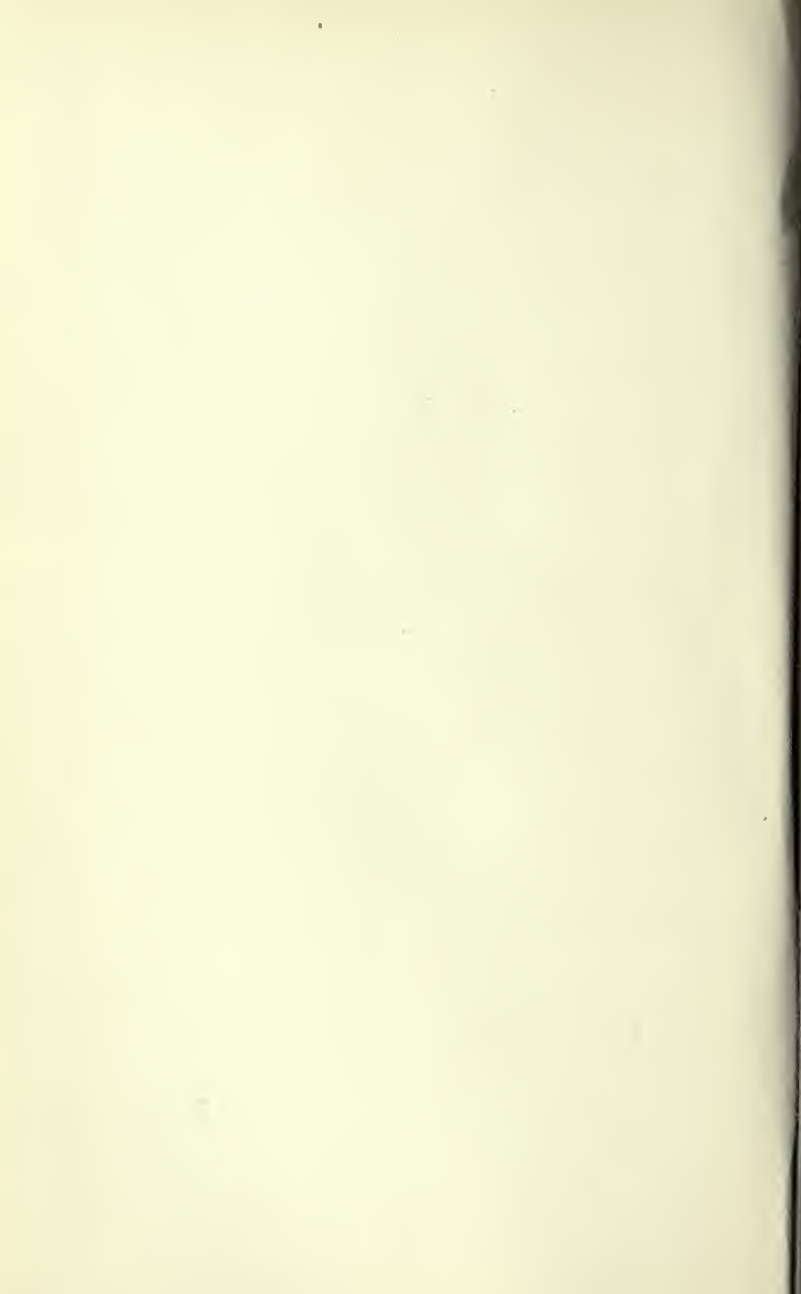
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